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GRAMMAR MADE EASY

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BY

ELIZABETH M. SEWELL,

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'HISTORY OF GREECE,' 'ANCIENT HISTORY OF EGYPT,
ASSYRIA, AND BABYLON,' ETC.



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PREFACE.

THE object of this little Grammar is to assist Teachers as well as to instruct children.

English Grammar is so perplexed and uncertain, that Grammar in the abstract can never be thoroughly understood except by the aid of a foreign language. Some preparatory knowledge is, however, necessary before a child can begin to study grammatically any language but its own; and it is this knowledge which 'The Grammar Made Easy' is intended to convey. Many persons are called upon to give instruction in the elements of Grammar who have never thoroughly comprehended it themselves, and in order to avoid the difficulty arising from this fact, they give their pupils a certain number of dry rules to be learnt by rote, and with this content themselves, trusting that the study of Latin, French, or German will by

degrees make every thing clear. How greatly this ignorance increases the perplexities of the pupil when first set down before a complicated foreign grammar need scarcely be said. The terms made use of are unintelligible; to distinguish an accusative from a nominative case is an impossibility; and grammar is looked upon as the driest and most uninteresting of lessons. It is hoped that the short explanations given in 'The Grammar Made Easy' may throw a clearer light upon what is confessedly a difficult subject. They are based upon the fact that we all talk more or less grammatically without knowing it, and for the most part only need to have our own words explained to us.

The Questions asked by the Teacher are those which any intelligent pupil may be supposed to answer. They are not intended for lessons to be learnt by rote, but merely as parts of explanatory conversations, in which the answers, if they are not given at once, may be prompted by the Teacher.

The Summaries, on the contrary, should be learnt. They gather up the substance of the explanations, and will not be found difficult.

The Exercises at the end of the book will, it is hoped, be found helpful to Teachers.

No attempt has been made to make Grammar anything but a lesson. The subject is one which requires attention, and children must be taught to give it, and will like what they learn all the better because they feel that they are exerting their minds. It would seem to be a mistake to attempt to mix up work and play. A very pleasant lesson will be found to be a very dull amusement.

BONCHURCH: *Feb.* 8, 1872.

CONTENTS.



PART I.

	PAGE
NOUNS	1
ADJECTIVES	5
PRONOUNS	13
VERBS	16
ADVERBS	21
PREPOSITIONS	25
CONJUNCTIONS	27
INTERJECTIONS	29



PART II.

ON THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF NOUNS	31
THE CASES OF NOUNS	36
GENITIVE OR POSSESSIVE CASE OF NOUNS	41
ADJECTIVES, THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON	45

	PAGE
PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE, AND	
POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS	49
RELATIVE PRONOUNS	52
INTERROGATIVE, INDEFINITE, COMPOUND, AND RECIPROCAL	
PRONOUNS	57
VERBS TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE	61
THE INDICATIVE MOOD	65
CONTINUATION OF THE MOODS OF VERBS	68
PARTICIPLES	73
THE AUXILIARY VERB TO BE, AND THE DEFECTIVE AND	
IMPERSONAL VERBS	80
CLASSES OF ADVERBS	88
GOVERNMENT OF PREPOSITIONS AND DIVISION OF CON-	
JUNCTIONS	92
WORDS USED IN VARIOUS RELATIONS	96
EXERCISES	102

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

MADE EASY.



PART I.

NOUNS.

Governess. The names of all things we can see, hear, touch, taste, smell, or feel in our minds or think about, are *nouns*. Now look round the room and tell me some nouns in it.

Pupil. *Chair, table, book, curtain, picture, window, wall, &c.*

G. Now look out of the window, and tell me some more nouns.

P. *Tree, flower, sky, house, bank, path, &c.*

G. When we want to speak of more than one chair or table, what do we say ?

P. Two *chairs*, two *tables*, three *chairs*, many *chairs*, &c.; or three, four, several *tables*.

G. The word *chair* is a noun in the *singular number*, for singular means one thing ; and *chairs* is a noun in the *plural number* for plural means more than one.

' We will find out the singular and plural numbers of the nouns in this room. I will say the singular and you shall say the plural.

G. Singular, table.

P. Plural, *tables*.

G. Singular, picture.

P. Plural, *pictures*.

G. Singular, window.

P. Plural, *windows*.

G. We will look out of the window and find some more nouns in the singular and plural numbers.

G. Singular, tree.

P. Plural, *trees*.

G. Singular, flower.

P. Plural, *flowers*.

G. Singular, house.

P. Plural, *houses*.

G. Now we will say the nouns in the singular and plural numbers connected with the sea.

G. Singular, wave.

P. Plural, *waves*.

G. Singular, rock.

P. Plural, *rocks*.

G. Singular, ship.

P. Plural, *ships*.

(In the same way the child should be made to tell the nouns in the singular and plural, connected with a house, a town, the country, a garden, till the idea of nouns in the singular and plural numbers has become familiar.)

G. The plural of most words is formed by *s*. This

is called *the regular plural* ; but there are a great many words which have a different plural. Regular means according to rule. Irregular means without rule. We do not say two *childs*, two *mans*, but two—

P. Children, two men.

G. I will mention the singular of some more nouns which have an *irregular plural* (by which I mean a plural that is not formed by *s*) and you shall tell me the right plural.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>G. Woman</i>	<i>P. Women</i>
Goose	Geese
Ox	Oxen
Loaf	Loaves
Penny	Pennies or Pence
Tooth	Teeth
Mouse	Mice

There are many nouns which take *es* instead of *s* in the plural, but that is only for the sound, and they are still considered regular plurals. For instance :

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>G. Fox</i>	<i>P. Foxes</i>
Church	Churches
Lash	Lashes

G. There are other nouns which are only used in the plural, as for instance *scissars, clothes, customs*. Now think of some more.

P. Ashes, bellows, oats, pincers, snuffers, tongs, wages.

G. Then there are other nouns which have strange plurals because they were originally foreign words, though they are now in common use in England ; but these are generally difficult words, the meaning of which you would not understand, so we will leave them for the present.

Summary.

G. How many numbers has a noun ?

P. Two.

G. What are they called ?

P. Singular and plural.

G. How many kinds of plurals are there ?

P. Two. Regular and irregular.

G. What does regular mean ?

P. According to rule.

G. And irregular ?

P. Without rule.

G. How is the regular plural formed ?

P. By adding *s* or *es*.

G. Is there any one rule for the formation of irregular plurals ?

P. No ; they are formed in various ways.

G. Have all words a singular and plural number ?

P. No, some are used only in the plural.

G. What words in the English language have the most irregular plurals ?

P. Difficult words derived from foreign languages.

(Sentences such as the following from some easy

book may be read aloud, and the pupil required to mark the nouns.)

Exercise.

Kind brothers and sisters make happy homes.
The sun and the moon give light by day and by night.
Flowers and trees revive in spring. The village is full of people. The ship sails upon the sea.

ADJECTIVES.

G. If you were going to tell me what sort of book this is, what would you call it?

P. A *pretty* (or a *small* or *large*) book.

G. Words which tell us what the things we see are like, whether they are pretty or ugly, or coloured, or, in short, help to describe them, are called *Adjectives*. What does an Adjective help us to do?

P. To describe—or say what things are like.

G. I will name a noun, and you shall put an adjective to it. Table.

P. *Round* table.

G. Screen.

P. *Pretty* screen.

G. Picture.

P. *Beautiful* picture.

G. Sponge.

P. *Soft* sponge.

G. Stone.

P. *Hard* stone.

(In the same way let the child put a number of adjectives and nouns together.)

<i>Nouns.</i>	<i>Adjectives.</i>
G. Box	P. Square
Penwiper	Useful
Tree	Green
Pencil-case	Silver
Mountain	High
Ship	Large
Cliff	White
House	Pleasant.

G. You will see that the same word may sometimes be used as a noun, and sometimes as an adjective. When I say, '*silver pencil-case*,' *silver* is used as an *adjective*, because it tells what the kind of pencil-case is; but if I say, '*silver is valuable*,' *silver* is a *noun*, because I am speaking of the metal silver.

Numbers are called Definite Numeral Adjectives. There are two kinds of these adjectives. Repeat the numbers 1, 2, 3, &c., as far as 12.—Now add nouns to them.

P. *Two boxes, three trees, four sheep, five houses, &c.*

G. The numbers 1, 2, 3, &c., are called *Cardinal Numbers*. What are they called?

P. Cardinal numbers.

G. But if I wished to explain how things followed one another, as, for instance, how boys stood in a line, I should not say, 'this boy stood *one*, that boy stood *two*,' but—

P. This boy stood *first*, that boy stood *second*.

G. Now repeat the numbers *first, second, third, &c.*, up to the *twelfth*.—Those are called the *Ordinal Numbers*. What are they called?

P. Ordinal numbers.

G. We have spoken of *Definite Numeral Adjectives*, now we have to find out some which are *Indefinite*. What is the meaning of definite?

P. Certain.

G. Yes, or more properly—*limited* or *marked off*. And indefinite means—

P. Not limited—not marked off.

G. If I say, 'I have *one, two, or three* pears,' or 'he has the *first or second* prize,' you know exactly the number that I mean; but if I were to say, 'I have *a few* pears,' or 'he has *several* prizes,' you would be uncertain as to the number. Words that thus express an *uncertain* quantity are called *Indefinite Numeral Adjectives*. Try and find out these words.

P. Some, many, any, all, none, few, several, &c.

G. What are the words which express an uncertain quantity called?

P. Indefinite numeral adjectives.

G. Lastly, there are the *Distributive Adjectives*. *Each, every, either, and neither*.

They are called *distributive*, because they *distribute*, that is, separate or divide a *class* or set of objects; for instance, if I say, 'Your name is written in *each book*,' I mean that your name is written in two books or in a *set* of books. If I say, 'Neither of them has gained the prize,' I mean that *more than one* has tried

for the prize. What are these adjectives, *each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither* called ?

P. Distributive Adjectives.

Summary.

G. What are the words called which help us to describe or say what things are like ?

P. Adjectives.

G. Is the same word always an adjective ?

P. No, it is sometimes a noun.

G. Give me an instance. When is *silver* an adjective, and when is it a noun ?

P. If I say '*silver pencil case*,' *silver* is an adjective, because it tells me what the pencil case is like. If I say '*silver is valuable*' *silver* is a noun, because it means the metal silver.

G. What are Definite Numeral Adjectives ?

P. Adjectives which describe a definite or an exact number.

G. How many kinds of numbers are there ?

P. Two, Cardinal and Ordinal.

G. Which are the Cardinal Numbers ?

P. 1, 2, 3, &c.

G. Which are the Ordinal Numbers ?

P. *First*, *second*, *third*, &c.

G. What is meant by an Indefinite Numeral Adjective ?

P. A word which expresses an uncertain quantity, as *some*, *few*, *many*, *several*, &c.

G. Which are the distributive adjectives ?

P. *Each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither*.

G. Why are they called distributive ?

P. Because they *distribute* ; that is, separate or divide a class or set of objects.

Exercise.

White pigeon. Every day. Three roses. One carnation. First class. Many children. Good girls. Naughty boys. Gold watch. Happy old man. Poor lame woman. Sweet flowers. Blue sky. Round balls. Fat hens. Third year. Many months. Each week. Four days. Second prize. Seven cows. Few horses. Any good child.

ADJECTIVES continued.

DISTINGUISHING AND DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

G. There are other kinds of adjectives of which it is not quite so easy to explain the meaning ; but just think—if I were to tell you to go into the garden, and bring me *an* apple and *a* flower, should you suppose I cared which apple or which flower it was ?

P. No.

G. But if I said ‘Bring me *the* apple and *the* flower,’ you would ask me directly which particular apple or flower I meant. You see, therefore, that the words *an* or *a* and *the* mark or distinguish what we mean. For this reason, they are now generally called *Distinguishing Adjectives* ; but in former days *an* or *a* was called the Indefinite, and *the* the Definite Article. What are *an* and *the* now called ?

P. Distinguishing Adjectives.

G. Why?

P. Because they mark or distinguish what we mean.

G. What were they formerly called?

P. *An* or *a* was called the Indefinite, and *the* the Definite Article.

G. *An* was originally the same word as *one*. *An* apple meant *one* apple. In the German language, which in many respects is like our own, there is still this one word *ein* to express both the indefinite article and the numeral adjective. You may observe that we use *an* before all words beginning with the letters or vowels *a e i o u*, as *an owl*, *an urn*, *an island*. What do we call those letters?

P. Vowels.*

G. But we have dropped the letter *n* before the other letters of the alphabet, which are called consonants. We say a boy, a cow, a horse. What are the other letters called?

P. Consonants.

G. You must also learn about other adjectives, known as *Demonstrative* Adjectives. *Demonstrative* means that which demonstrates or points out. What does demonstrative mean?

P. That which demonstrates or points out.

G. I will make you find out these demonstrative adjectives for yourself. Here are two books. Which do you think is the larger?

* *An* is also used before *h* mute, as *an honour*, *an hour*.

P. This one.

G. This is a demonstrative adjective; it points out which book is meant, but if, instead of speaking of one book, you were pointing out two or three books, what should you say? Not this books, but—

P. These books.

G. This is the singular. These is—

P. The plural.

G. But suppose you were pointing to something at a distance, you would not say 'Look at this,' but look at—

P. That.

G. That is a demonstrative adjective, but if there were two or three things at a distance, you would say not 'Look at these,' but look at—

P. Those.

G. That is the singular. Those is the—

P. Plural.

G. Now repeat the Demonstrative Adjectives after me. They are—

Singular.

Plural.

This.

These.

That.

Those.

G. You see, therefore, that demonstrative adjectives point out whether things are near or at a distance.

Summary.

G. What are an, and a, and the called?

P. Distinguishing Adjectives.

G. Why are they called distinguishing ?

P. Because they mark or distinguish what we mean.

G. What other name is sometimes given to them ?

P. Articles.

G. What was the original meaning of *an* ?

P. It had the same meaning as *one*.

G. When do we use *an* ?

P. Before *a, e, i, o, u*, and *h* mute.

G. What are those letters called ?

P. Vowels.

G. And other letters of the alphabet—?

P. Consonants.

G. Which are the demonstrative adjectives ?

P. *This* and *that*, *these* and *those*.

G. Why are they called demonstrative ?

P. Because they demonstrate or point out whether things are near or at a distance.

Exercise on Nouns and Adjectives.

This good boy. Those lovely flowers. A pretty cat. The large house. That tough goose. The naughty children. A timid mouse. Those frightened birds. An ugly dog. The wild oxen. An indolent pupil. A wise father. The first prize. Those three pears. The hungry lions. The twelfth book. Six black crows. The three awkward young girls. Those five rude disagreeable boys. These four good-natured obliging young women. That amiable little child. The seven beautiful, valuable paintings. A

clear cloudless sky. Two high barren hills. The smouldering ashes. The stiff tongs. Those wild oats. The new churches. These low wages. Every good boy. Several careless children. Many idle companions. A few pretty toys. Much happiness. Little joy. Any clever man. The third picture. Each tired horse.

PRONOUNS.

G. If I were going to tell you all that your friend Fanny had been doing to-day, I should not say Fanny got up in the morning, Fanny came down, and Fanny learnt her lesson, and Fanny had her breakfast; but what should I say?

P. Fanny got up in the morning, and *she* came down, &c.

G. And if I were talking of you and me, what should I say?

P. *We*.

G. And when a person speaks of himself or herself?

P. *I*.

G. These words are called Pronouns, because they are used *for* or *instead of* nouns. *Pro* means *for* in Latin. What are they called?

P. Pronouns.

G. Why are they called pronouns?

P. Because they are used *for* or *instead of* nouns.

G. What is the meaning of *pro* in Latin?

P. For.

G. There is one pronoun we have not mentioned. *Thou*. The Quakers always say '*Thou*,' when they are talking to a person. We use it when we wish to be very reverent—we always say '*Thou*' in prayers, and it is constantly used in the Bible. What do we use at other times when we are speaking to a person?

P. The pronoun, *you*.

G. I will repeat these pronouns; *I, thou, he, you, they*. When we speak of a girl or a woman we do not say *he*; what do we say?

P. *She*.

G. And when we speak of a thing without a name we say—

P. *It*.

G. So the pronouns are *I, thou, he, she, or it—you, they*. When we say *I, thou, he, she, or it*, how many persons or things do we speak of?

P. One.

G. And when we say *are you*, or *they*, we speak of more than one; so *I, thou, he, she, and it*, are pronouns in the singular number, and *we, you and they* are pronouns in the plural number.

Now repeat them after me—

1st person singular, <i>I</i> ,	
2nd ,, <i>Thou</i> ,	
3rd ,, <i>He, she or it</i> .	

1st person plural	<i>We,</i>
2nd ,,	<i>You or ye,</i>
3rd ,,	<i>They.</i>

I, thou, &c., are called *personal* pronouns, because they relate to, or express *persons*.

(These pronouns should be repeated several times, and questions should be asked, such as, which is the first person singular? which is the 2nd person plural, &c.?)

G. Now I will give you some nouns, and you shall tell me what pronouns to use instead.

The dog barks. What pronoun would you use instead of the noun *dog*?

P. *He* or *it* barks.

G. You and I are going out?

P. *We*.

G. She and Charlotte have quarrelled?

P. *They*.

G. The bird sings?

P. *It*.

G. You and Harry must have some dinner?

P. *You*.

Summary.

G. What is the meaning of Pronoun?

P. A word used for or instead of a noun,

G. What is the meaning of *pro* in Latin?

P. For.

G. Repeat the Personal Pronouns?

P. *I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they.*

G. Is the pronoun *thou* commonly used in conversation?

P. No. It was formerly, but now it is used as a sign of reverence.

G. Which pronoun do we use instead?

P. The second person plural,—*you*.

VERBS.

G. All words which express what we do, think or feel, are called Verbs. *To sing* is a verb, *to play* is a verb, *to dance*, *to jump*, *to fight*, *to kiss*, *to run*, are all verbs. Now find some verbs for yourself.

P. *To work*, *to crawl*, *to sleep*, *to eat*, &c.

G. But you will find that verbs constantly have nouns or pronouns going before them; and,—what is particularly to be noticed,—when the noun or pronoun is changed, the verb often changes also—that is to say, the noun or pronoun rules or governs the verb. It makes the verb suit or agree with it. We will put some pronouns and verbs together now, and you will understand better what I mean. Suppose we were talking about dancing, and you were telling me that you were accustomed to dance every day, you would say '*I dance*;' but if you were talking of your sister you would say, '*She—*'

P. Dances.

G. Yes; you see the word *dance* is changed into *dances* to agree with *she*. These pronouns and verbs are in the singular number. They refer to only one person. Now we will try the plural. We—

P. Dance.

G. You—

P. Dance.

G. They—

P. Dance.

G. We will say that one over again regularly and put in *thou*, the pronoun we left out. Repeat after me :

1st person singular	<i>I dance,</i>
2nd ,,	<i>Thou dancest,</i>
3rd ,,	<i>He, she or it dances.</i>
1st person plural	<i>We dance,</i>
2nd ,,	<i>You dance,</i>
3rd ,,	<i>They dance.</i>

G. That is called the Present Tense, or Time, because it speaks of what persons are doing at present. If you were speaking of what happened yesterday, or last week, you would say 'I—'

P. Danced.

G. You may repeat the Past Tense after me.

1st person singular	<i>I danced,</i>
2nd ,,	<i>Thou dancedst,</i>
3rd ,,	<i>He, she or it danced.</i>
1st person plural	<i>We danced,</i>
2nd ,,	<i>You danced,</i>
3rd ,,	<i>They danced.</i>

G. If you were going to dance to-morrow, you would say—'I—'

P. 'Shall dance.'

G. Yes ; I shall or will dance. That would be called the Future Tense. Now repeat it.

1st person singular	<i>I shall or will dance,</i>
2nd	„ <i>Thou shalt or wilt dance,</i>
3rd	„ <i>He, she or it shall or will dance.</i>
1st person plural	<i>We shall or will dance,</i>
2nd	„ <i>You shall or will dance,</i>
3rd	„ <i>They shall or will dance.</i>

(These three Tenses should be repeated with several different verbs, as, to walk, to jump, &c.)

G. You will find that when we put a noun instead of a pronoun before the verb, it governs, or makes the verb change, just in the same way. If I were speaking of your sister I might say, 'She dances,' or 'Charlotte—'

P. Dances.

G. Yes: it would be nonsense to say 'Charlotte dance.' The noun and the verb must agree.

If I ask you the number and person of the noun *Charlotte*, you would be able to tell them at once by putting a pronoun in the place of *Charlotte*. What pronoun would that be?

P. She.

G. And what person and number?

P. The third person, singular number.

G. Yes; therefore as the noun or pronoun and the verb must always agree, when I say 'Charlotte dances,' *dances* must be in the same person and number as *Charlotte*. *Charlotte* is the third person, singular number, and *dances* is—

P. The third person, singular number.

G. *Harry and I dance*. What pronoun would you use instead of *Harry and I*?

P. We.

G. What are the person and number of the pronoun *we* ?

P. First person, plural number.

G. Therefore *dance* will be — ?

P. First person, plural number.

G. *You and Charlotte dance*. What pronoun would you use instead ?

P. You.

G. What person, and number ?

• P. Second person, plural number

G. And *dance* then must be—?

P. Second person, plural number.

G. *Harry and Charlotte dance*. What pronoun will you use instead ?

P. They.

G. What are the person and number ?

P. Third person, plural.

G. Then *dance* will be — ?

P. Third person, plural.

G. Yes ; nouns and pronouns and verbs must agree.

Summary.

G. Which are the personal pronouns ?

P. I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they.

G. Which of these pronouns are in the singular number ?

P. I, thou, he, she, it.

G. Which are in the plural number ?

P. We, you, they.

G. Why are these words called pronouns ?

P. Because they are used for nouns, and *pro* in Latin means *for*.

G. Why are they called *personal* pronouns?

P. Because they are generally used to express persons.

G. When do we use the pronoun *Thou*?

P. In our prayers, and when we desire to be very reverent.

G. What words constantly follow pronouns?

P. Verbs.

G. What are verbs?

P. Words which express what we do, think, or feel.

G. What is the general rule about these personal pronouns and the verbs which follow?

P. They must agree.

G. What are these pronouns said to do to the verb?

P. To rule or govern it, because they make it change.

G. Do nouns ever make the verb change?

P. Yes, often. Nouns and pronouns have the same effect upon the verb.

G. What is the meaning of the word *Tense*?

P. Time.

G. What are the chief tenses of verbs?

P. Present, past, future.

Exercise on Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Verbs.

They will punish the disobedient children. I have played three times. She danced five dances. Charlotte scratched Fanny. The strong horse draws the

large carriage. I saw four wild cows. Thou dancest. Sophy gained two prizes. Harry seized the ripe red apple. The farmers will catch the fox. The dogs worry the cats. William dislikes the lesson. The little puppy bit the tall man. A proud peacock displays a splendid tail. They will throw three balls. You will eat a hasty dinner.

ADVERBS.

G. Adverbs are words which tell *how*, *how much*, *when*, or *where* the verbs are done. They are added on to verbs, and that is the reason they are called adverbs. If I say, '*You write badly*,' *badly* is added to the verb *write* to show how the writing is done. Therefore *badly* is—

P. An *adverb*.

G. I will name some verbs, and you shall put adverbs to them. To learn—

P. Perfectly.

G. To scream—

P. Loudly.

G. To work—

P. Neatly.

G. To behave—

P. Well.

G. All these adverbs tell how the verbs or actions are done. They are called *Adverbs of Quality*. What is it they tell ?

P. *How* a verb or action is done.

G. And what are they called ?

P. Adverbs of *Quality*.

G. Now we will find some which tell *when* an action is done. *I wrote to Charles yesterday. Yesterday* is an adverb.

G. I shall go to dinner—

P. Presently.

G. I hope to see you—

P. To-morrow.

G. Go for a walk and return—

P. Soon.

G. These adverbs are called Adverbs of *Time*. Adverbs sometimes come before a verb. I might say, '*Yesterday I went* for a walk,' or '*To-morrow I hope* to see you.' What are the words called which tell us *when* an action is done ?

P. Adverbs of *Time*.*

G. Now we will find some adverbs which show *where* the action is done. I threw the ball *there*; where did I throw the ball ?

P. There.

G. *There* is an adverb. Harry, come—

P. Here.

G. Charlotte came from—

P. Thence.

G. All those adverbs are Adverbs of *Place*. What do adverbs of place show us ?

P. *Where* actions are done.

* *To-morrow* and *yesterday* are often used as nouns.

G. There are still some more adverbs, called Adverbs of Quantity, which tell about the *number of times* actions are done, or whether they are done much or little, or too much or too little. I may say, 'He has spoken to me twice.' *Twice* is an adverb. Or, I may say, 'He has talked too much.' *Too* and *much* are adverbs. 'She has eaten enough.' *Enough* is an adverb. Now I will give you a sentence containing adverbs which tell about time and quantity, and you shall say which they are:

He saw me *once* and talked *much* of your sermon, which he said you divided into *firstly, secondly, thirdly*; but I understood *very little*, as we were interrupted *twice*. I was *greatly* vexed, for I have *seldom* seen a person I liked *more*. Now, which are the adverbs?

P. Once, much, firstly, secondly, thirdly, very little, twice, greatly, seldom, more.

G. What are these adverbs called?

P. Adverbs of *Quantity*.

G. What do adverbs of quantity tell us?

P. The number of times actions are done, and whether they are done much or little.

G. There are several other kinds of adverbs, but those I have named are the principal. Almost all words ending in *ly*, except names of places and people, are adverbs. When it is not clear to which class they belong, it is sufficient to say they are adverbs.

Summary.

G. What do you mean by adverbs?

P. Words which tell us how, when, where, or how much a verb is done.

G. Why are they called adverbs ?

P. Because they are added to verbs.

G. What are the chief divisions of adverbs ?

P. Adverbs of quality, adverbs of time, adverbs of place, and adverbs of quantity.

G. What do adverbs of quality show ?

P. *How* an action is done.

G. What do adverbs of time show ?

P. *When* an action is done.

G. What do adverbs of place show ?

P. *Where* an action is done.

G. What do adverbs of quantity show ?

P. *How often* or *how much* an action is done.

G. Are adverbs always placed after the verb ?

P. No ; they are sometimes placed before it, as
Yesterday I went for a walk.

G. How do adverbs very frequently end ?

P. In *ly*.

*Exercise on Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs,
and Adverbs.*

The naughty girl ran quickly away. The wild bull injured Charles grievously. She sincerely loves the pretty little baby. Usually we walk twice a day. Susan talks loudly. The noisy parrots greatly disturbed the party. They came suddenly. Charles frightened John terribly. This house looks quite large enough. That tiresome cook spoiled the broth completely. He beat the poor lame boy cruelly.

PREPOSITIONS.

G. Tell me where this book is lying ?

P. Upon the table.

G. And where that chair is placed ?

P. Against the wall.

G. Where are horses kept ?

P. In a stable.

G. If I were to say, 'this book is lying — the table;' 'that chair is placed — the wall;' 'horses are kept — a stable,' I should be talking nonsense, because I should not tell you what the book had to do with the table, or what the chair had to do with the wall. Now tell me again what the little words are which must be put in to make sense. This book is lying—

P. *Upon* the table.

G. That chair is placed—

P. *Against* the wall.

G. Horses are kept—

P. *In* a stable.

G. Those little words—*upon, against, in*—are called *Prepositions*. The word preposition comes from two Latin words which signify the place or position of things which are connected with one another. What are the words *upon, against, in*, called ?

P. Prepositions.

G. What is the use of prepositions ?

P. They indicate the place or position of things which are connected with one another.

G. There are a great many prepositions. You can easily find them out yourself. I will give you some sentences with the prepositions left out, and you shall tell me what words I must put in to make sense. I see a boy coming — the road.

P. *Along* the road.

G. The child is standing — the gate.

P. *By* the gate.

G. The dog jumped — the wall.

P. *Over* the wall.

G. The man has fallen — the tree.

P. *From* the tree.

G. Along, by, over, from, are prepositions; they show what two nouns, or a noun and a pronoun, have to do with one another. I will give you a list of the principal prepositions.

above	beneath	into	to
about	beside	near	towards
after	between	nigh	under
against	beyond	of	until
along	by	off	unto
among	concerning	out	upon
amongst	during	on	with
at	for	over	within
before	from	since	without
behind	in	through	
below	instead	till	

(These prepositions should be learnt by rote. A few repeated very often will soon make the lesson perfect. Otherwise, after having had a lesson upon

conjunctions a child will become confused between the two. It is therefore desirable that the lists both of prepositions and conjunctions should be learned correctly.)

CONJUNCTIONS.

G. There are some words which are called *Conjunctions*. The meaning of the word conjunction is *joining together*. If I say 'Charles and Fanny are ill,' which is the word that joins the two names together?

P. And.

G. *And* is a conjunction. Suppose Charles and not Fanny was ill; I might say 'Charles is ill, Fanny is not ill,' that would be two separate short sentences; but I might also say 'Charles is ill, but Fanny is not ill.' Which would be the word used to join the two short sentences?

P. But.

G. *But* is a conjunction.

You see conjunctions are used to join nouns and pronouns, or to connect the parts of a sentence. Tell me again what is the use of conjunctions?

P. To join nouns and pronouns, or to connect the parts of a sentence.

G. Now I will give you some more examples. *You shall not go unless you behave well.* Which is the first part of that sentence?

P. *You shall not go.*

G. Which is the second part ?

P. You behave well.

G. Which is the word that joins the two parts ?

P. Unless.

G. Then *unless* is a—

P. Conjunction.

G. I will give you some more instances. *I did not see him, for he was not there.* Which is the conjunction in that sentence ?

P. For.

G. I love her, although I punish her ?

P. Although.

G. Charlotte is good, therefore she is happy ?

P. Therefore.

G. Charles and John may go and also Fanny or Julia, but Susan must not go. There are several conjunctions in that sentence, find them out.

P. And, also, or, but.

G. There are a great many conjunctions ; it will be well to learn them by rote. The chief are—

again	else	nor	through
albeit	except	notwithstanding	till
also	for	or	unless
although	however	otherwise	whereas
and	if	save	wherefore
as	lest	since	whereupon
because	likewise	so	whether
both	moreover	that	yet
but	neither	than	
either	nevertheless	therefore	

INTERJECTIONS.

G. Now we have spoken of all the different kinds of words, or parts of speech as they are called, except one. There are some words called *Interjections*. We use them when we exclaim or call out about anything. Oh! Ah! Alas! are interjections. There are not many, and we can easily know them, for they are only exclamations; the most difficult thing about them is the name. What are they called?

P. Interjections.

G. What is the meaning of the word interjection?

P. Exclamation, or calling out.

G. Now we will repeat together the names of the different parts of speech. There are eight of them.

Nouns,	Adverbs,
Adjectives,	Prepositions,
Pronouns,	Conjunctions,
Verbs,	Interjections.

Summary.

G. What is the meaning of preposition?

P. The place or position of things which are connected with one another.

G. Then how many nouns and pronouns must there generally be in a sentence which contains prepositions?

P. Two or more.

G. What is the meaning of the word conjunction?

P. Joining together.

G. What is the use of conjunctions ?

P. To join nouns and pronouns, or to connect the parts of a sentence.

G. What words do we use when we exclaim or call out ?

P. Interjections.

G. How many different parts of speech are there ?

P. Eight.

G. Repeat them ?

P. Noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection.

General Exercises on the Parts of Speech.

He will pay Charles the bill, unless Harry paid it yesterday.

Alas ! I carelessly lost the money in that purse yesterday. The good clergyman kindly gave twelve shillings for the work I finished to-day, and therefore I replaced it.

Probably Harry will come to-morrow, and we shall then see the beautiful ornaments.

Ah ! naughty children, you laugh too loudly, and you will wake the little sick baby.

Oh ! I envy the happiness of the man when he saw the parents and children he loved so dearly.

That old man looks mournful and he suffers greatly, but the idle boy cares very little about it.

Little Charlotte scratched and pinched the infant when she saw it for the first time. She took it for a doll. Poor dear little Harry tumbled down and broke the lovely jar, but the kind nurse mended it.

PART II.

ON THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF NOUNS.

G. When we are speaking of different people or different things we distinguish them by their names. Tell me the names of men which you can remember.

P. *Richard, Robert, Charles, &c.*

G. Now give me the names of women.

P. *Charlotte, Ann, Susan, &c.*

G. Now the names of mountains and rivers.

P. *Etna, Vesuvius, Ararat, Snowdon, &c. Thames, Seine, Tagus, &c.*

G. Richard must be a man, and *man* we know is a noun. Therefore what part of speech will you call *Richard*?

P. A noun.

G. Charlotte is the name of a woman, and *woman* is a noun. What part of speech is *Charlotte*?

P. A noun.

G. Vesuvius is the name of a mountain, and *mountain* is a noun. What part of speech is *Vesuvius*?

P. A noun.

G. So we see that there are words like man, woman, mountain, river, which belong to all men and all women and mountains and rivers, and there

are other words, such as Richard, Charlotte, Vesuvius, Thames, and others, which distinguish some *particular* person or things, and yet they are all *nouns*. Those which belong to a whole set of persons or things are called *common nouns*, because they are common to many. Those which belong to some particular persons or things are called *proper nouns*. Tell me whether boy is a common or proper noun.

P. A common noun.

G. Charles ?

P. Proper.

G. Lake ?

P. Common.

G. Windermere ?

P. Proper.

G. City ?

P. Common.

G. London ?

P. Proper.

G. River ?

P. Common.

G. Tagus ?

P. Proper.

G. What are the nouns called which belong to a whole set of things of the same kind ?

P. Common nouns.

G. And what are the nouns called which distinguish some particular thing ?

P. Proper nouns.

G. When you parse a sentence or tell which part

of speech every word belongs to, you must always say what species of noun it is which is mentioned in it, and therefore you must learn to know two other different kinds. When you speak of *an army*, do you mean a great many persons, or only one?

P. A great many.

G. When you speak of a *crowd*, a *mob*, a *multitude*, you also mean a great many, and yet you say *a crowd*, *a mob*, as if there was only one thing. Such words as these—*crowd*, *mob*, *army*, *multitude*, are called *collective nouns*. They denote by one word a number of things or persons collected together. What are they called?

P. Collective nouns.

G. Why?

P. Because they denote by one word a number of things or persons collected together.

G. There are other nouns, called *abstract nouns*. They express feelings, or ideas, or actions, or things, which we can conceive of in our minds, though we cannot handle them, such as love, anger, justice, mercy, goodness, beauty, &c. I will mention some more nouns, and you shall tell me the class to which each belongs:—

Horse, despair, England, regiment, country, contentment, people, king, James, heap, water, youth, Paris, length, hatred, labourer, goose, quantity, America, marsh, cataract, vermin, iron, number, light, Egypt, populace, Charles, girl, cow, actress, queen, pleasure, governor, river.

G. There is something else which you have to learn

respecting nouns. It is called *gender*. The names of animals of the male kind are of the *masculine* gender, the names of those of the female kind are of the *feminine* gender, and all other names are of the *neuter* gender, that is they are neither masculine nor feminine. What is the gender of boy ?

P. Masculine.

G. Hen ?

P. Feminine.

G. Table ?

P. Neuter.

G. Some nouns are both masculine and feminine. They are generally termed *common*, as belonging to both genders. *Parent, cousin, bird*, have a common gender. And sometimes we talk of things as if they were persons, and then we give them a gender which does not really belong to them. Thus we say of the sun, '*He* never stops to rest,' or of the moon, '*She* shines softly.' What gender do we give to a ship when we say '*She* sails' ?

P. Feminine.

G. What gender do we give to a country, such as England, when we speak of it as a person ?

P. Feminine.

G. This is a matter of custom ; there is no rule for it. Now tell me the gender of the following nouns :—*Nephew, empress, giantess, queen, friend, bull, girl, quadruped*.

And also tell me what gender we use when we speak of the following objects as if they were persons :—

Earth (f.) nature (f.) death (m.) winter (m.) religion (f.)

(The preceding exercise on the classes of nouns may also be used for the gender.)

Summary.

G. How may nouns be divided ?

P. Into common, proper, collective, and abstract nouns.

G. What are common nouns ?

P. Nouns which belong to a whole set of persons or things of the same kind, as *man, woman, mountain, river.*

G. Why are they called common ?

P. Because they are common to many.

G. What are proper nouns ?

P. Nouns which distinguish some individual persons or places, as *Charles, London, Tagus, &c.*

G. What are collective nouns ?

P. Nouns which denote by one word a number of things or persons collected together, as *people, cattle, army.*

G. What are abstract nouns ?

P. Nouns which express feelings, or ideas, or actions which we can conceive of in our minds, though we cannot handle them, as *happiness, labour, beauty.*

G. How many genders have nouns in English ?

P. Three ; masculine, feminine, and neuter. Animals of the male kind are of the masculine gender ; animals of the female kind, of the feminine gender ; and all other names are said to be neuter, that is, neither masculine nor feminine.

G. What is meant by a common gender ?

P. The gender of nouns which are both masculine and feminine, as *parent, cousin, bird*.

G. Are neuter nouns ever spoken of as if they had gender?

P. Yes; when we personify or speak of them as persons. Thus, we say of the sun, 'He never stops to rest;' and of the moon, 'She shines brightly.'

THE CASES OF NOUNS.

G. The most difficult thing to understand with regard to a noun is what is called its case. The meaning of this is its relation to some other word or action; or, as we might say, if we were not speaking of words, what its business is; what it has to do, or to bear, or what belongs to it. When I say *The man beats the dog*, who is it that beats?

P. The man.

G. If I say *The dog bites the man*, what is it that bites

P. The dog.

G. *Man* and *dog* are said to be in the nominative case. Nominative expresses the name of the person or thing which acts. When I say *The cows and the pigs run about in the yard*, which are the nouns that are in the nominative case?

P. Cows and pigs.

G. *The boy fell into the water and the dog rushed in after him*. Which are the nouns in the nominative?

P. *Boy, dog*.

G. *The little birds were hopping about the tree when the birdcatcher caught them in his net?*

P. Birds, birdcatcher.

G. You see that the nouns in the nominative case generally *do* something, but often they have to *bear* something. If I say, *The horses are tired, The child suffers greatly, The houses were burning*,—*horses, child, and houses* are still in the nominative case, because they are the things of which we are speaking. For this reason, a noun in the nominative case is also called *the subject*. We often use this word, as for instance when we say, ‘This is the subject of our conversation.’ Tell me now what name is given to a noun which has something to do, or which expresses what is talked about? It is sometimes called—?

P. *The nominative*; and sometimes *the subject*.

G. When you learnt about verbs, you were told that when the noun or pronoun changes, the verb must agree with it. We say, *the men dance*—but *the man*—?

P. Dances.

G. In what case are *men* and *man*?

P. The nominative.

G. Therefore you see that nouns in the nominative case govern or rule the verb.

G. But you will find that there are often nouns in a sentence which have no effect upon the verb. I may say, *he beats the child*, or *he beats the children*. We change the singular *child* into *children*, but the verb *beats* does not alter. *The boy throws the ball*, or

the boy throws the balls; we change the singular *ball* into the plural *balls*, but the verb *throws* does not alter. This is because the words *children* and *balls* are not in the nominative but in the objective or, as it is also called, the accusative case. They are the objects of an action. *Charles learns his lessons*—which noun is in the nominative and which in the objective case?

P. *Charles* is in the nominative; *lessons* in the objective.

G. What number is *Charles*?

P. Singular.

G. What number is *learns*?

P. Singular.

G. What number is *lessons*?

P. Plural.

G. So, you see the verb *learns* agrees with the nominative *Charles*, not with the objective *lessons*.

G. *Rain and dew water flowers*?

P. *Rain and dew*, nominative; *flowers*, objective.

G. *Charles and James met Fanny and Mary*?

P. *Charles and James*, nominative; *Fanny and Mary*, objective.

G. Generally speaking, the nominative case comes before the verb, but it does not do so always. For instance, I may say, speaking of a conversation—*Charles replied*, or *replied Charles*. The best way of finding out the nominative in a sentence is to ask yourself which noun or pronoun it is which does the action.

G. For instance, ‘A short time afterwards *the servant saw the cow*.’ Who saw the cow?

P. The servant.

G. Then *servant* is—

P. The nominative.

G. *The boy about whom the gentleman spoke to you.*

Who spoke?

P. The gentleman.

G. Then *gentleman* is —?

P. The nominative.

G. There is another case, but it will be better to understand the nominative and objective perfectly before learning it.

Summary.

G. What is meant by the case of a noun or pronoun?

P. Its place or relation with regard to some other word.

G. Which is the nominative case?

P. That which expresses the name of the person or thing which acts.

G. What other word is used to express the nominative?

P. The subject.

G. What effect have nouns in the nominative case on the verbs connected with them?

P. They govern or rule them.

G. How may you find out the nominative in a sentence?

P. By asking who or what it is that does the action.

G. Does the nominative always come before the verb?

P. Not always.

G. Are there ever any nouns in a sentence which do not govern the verb by making it alter ?

P. Yes, nouns in the objective or, as it is also called, the accusative case.

G. What is the meaning of objective ?

P. The object of the action.

G. Give an instance of a noun in the objective case.

P. *John loves the child.* The noun *child* is in the objective case. It is the object ; and we may alter it without altering the verb and say, *John loves the children.*

G. How may you then distinguish between the nominative and objective cases ?

P. The nominative case governs the verb and the objective does not.

G. Give me another explanation.

P. The noun in the nominative case does the action and the noun in the objective case is acted upon.

Exercise.

The *ship* braved the *storm*, the *officers* were cheerful and the *captain* encouraged the *men*. The *passengers* quietly made *preparations* to leave the *vessel*. The *ship* approached the *rocks*. The *landsmen* threw a *rope*. The *sailors* caught it and were saved. *Morning* dawned and *sunshine* scattered the *clouds*.

The nominatives may be known by asking the following questions :

What braved the storm ?

Who were cheerful ?

Who encouraged the men ?

Who made preparations for leaving the vessel ?

What approached the rocks ?

Who threw a rope ?

Who caught it ?

Who were saved ?

Who caught the rope ?

What dawned ?

What scattered the clouds ?

In this exercise all the nouns which are not in the nominative are in the objective case.

GENITIVE OR POSSESSIVE CASE OF NOUNS.

G. You are to learn to-day about a third case called *Possessive*, because it expresses ownership or possession. When I say, *This is Ellen's doll*, whose doll do I say it is ?

P. Ellen's.

G. Ellen's is a noun in the possessive case. Look at the boy's coat. In what case is boy ?

P. The possessive.

G. The cat's paw. Cat is in— ?

P. The possessive case.

G. There is a little difficulty about the possessive case which you will understand by looking at the way in which the word is printed. You will see a small stroke called an apostrophe before the s. What is the stroke called ?

P. An apostrophe.

G. So the word *boy's* is spelt *b-o-y* apostrophe *s*. But if you were speaking of three or four boys how would you spell the word boys?

P. B-o-y-s.

G. Yes, without the apostrophe. Therefore the apostrophe is a sign of the possessive, or, as it is sometimes called, the *genitive* case. What is the other name given to the possessive case?

P. The genitive.

G. The words *boy* apostrophe *s* and *boys* sound alike. The difference between them can only be known by the sense, or by seeing how they are printed; and there is still another difficulty, because if we were speaking of the coats of several boys, we should still say *the boys' coats*. This word *boys'* sounds just like the others; but if you look at it, you will see that it is printed differently; for it is *boys'* apostrophe. Now tell me, if I say *the boy's coat* meaning the coat belonging to one boy, how must I write boy's?

P. B-o-y apostrophe *s*.

G. *The boys are running*. How must I write boys?

P. B-o-y-s.

G. Those boys' coats are badly made?

P. B-o-y-s' apostrophe.

G. It is to avoid the disagreeable sound that we do not add on the other *s* to these plural nouns in the possessive case. It would be so very unpleasant to say 'Look at the *boys's* coats.' 'Listen to the trampling of the *horses's* feet.' 'I am afraid of the *cows's* horns.' So instead of doing that, we say *boys'*, *cows'*, *horses'*, and put an apostrophe after the words

when they are written or printed. These changes in a noun according to the case are called *inflexions*. What are the changes called?

P. Inflexions.

G. I will now give you some examples of nouns in the possessive case, and you shall look at the way they are printed, and say whether they are singular or plural.

The boy's cricket ball. The boys' cricket match. A bird's song. The birds' chirping. The lions' hunger. The lion's roaring. The river's bank. The rivers' banks. The master's kindness. The masters' anger. The lioness's paw. The lionesses' paws.

G. There is another way of expressing the fact of possession besides using the apostrophe and the letter *s*. We may say '*the river's bank*,' or '*the bank of the river*.' '*The child's crying*,' or '*the crying of the child*.' It is often desirable to use this form of expression, because it avoids confusion. For instance, if I were to say *I hear the horses feet*, you would not know whether I meant one horse or two horses; but if I say *I hear the feet of the horses*, you would have no doubt in the matter. The preposition *of* is called a sign of the Possessive or Genitive Case, and in many foreign languages the noun connected with it alters accordingly, but in English there is no such change made.

Summary.

G. Which is a third case in the English language?

P. The possessive.

G. What other name is sometimes given to it?

P. The genitive.

G. What does this case express?

P. Ownership or possession.

G. How is it marked?

P. By the addition of a small mark called an apostrophe followed by the letter *s*.

G. Is this letter *s* always used?

P. No, when a word is plural and ends in *s*, as *dogs*, *horses*, *cows*, &c., the apostrophe is placed after the word, but the second *s* is left out.

G. Why is this done?

P. To avoid the disagreeable sound of the second *S*.

G. Is there any difficulty in distinguishing the singular and plural of words in the possessive case.

P. Yes, because they sound alike, as, *The dog's tail is short. The two dogs are running. The dogs' howls kept me awake.*

G. How may this confusion be avoided?

P. By changing the mode of expression, and using the preposition *of*, as *The howls of the dogs*.

G. What is the preposition *of* sometimes called?

P. A sign of the genitive or possessive case.

G. What name is given to the changes made in nouns according to the case?

P. The change is called an inflexion.

G. Does the preposition *of* cause any change in the noun connected with it?

P. Not in English, but it does in many foreign languages.

Exercise on Nouns in the Nominative, Objective, and Possessive Cases.

He found the *robber's cave* in the *depth* of the *forest*. The *druggist* will send the *child's medicine*, and when the *boys* return, the *servant* shall take the *mare's saddle* and put it on the *pony's back*, and carry the *parcel* for the *parents' great relief*. The *prince's attendants* talked with the two *princes*, *George* and *Walter*. The *cow's horns* look twisted. The *eagles' screams* and the *falcons' cry* startled the *man* from his *sleep*. The *horses' hoofs* nearly touched the *fugitive*. The *soldiers' disobedience* to the *general's orders* caused the *regiment's defeat* and the *battle's loss*.

ADJECTIVES.

THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

G. What part of speech is *hard*?

P. An adjective.

G. Suppose I take three balls and say *This ball is hard, that one is harder, but the third is the hardest*; these words *hard, harder, hardest*, are all adjectives; but have they the same meaning?

P. No.

G. They express a difference between the balls, that they are not all alike when compared with one another. What syllables do I add to the word *hard*.

when I want to express these differences? I say this is *hard*, that is *hard*—?

P. er.

G. And the third is the *hard*—?

P. est.

G. Yes; I add *er* and *est*. These changes or inflexions in an adjective are called *Degrees of Comparison*, because they are used when we compare one thing with another, or with several others; what are they called?

P. Degrees of comparison.

G. There are, you see, three degrees of comparison. We call them *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative*. The positive is the simple word which expresses a quality such as *hard*, *soft*, &c. The comparative ends in *er*, and the superlative in *est*. Now compare the following adjectives.

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
tall	taller	tallest
short	shorter	shortest
young	younger	youngest
old	older	oldest

G. That is the *regular* form of comparison; but it it does not suit all words. We do not say 'good, gooder, goodest,' but—?

P. Good, better, best.

G. I will give you the positive degree of some more adjectives which are compared *irregularly*, and *you shall tell me the comparative and superlative.*

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
bad	worse	worst
*far	further	furthest
*little	less	least
*much	more	most
*many	more	most
*near	nearer	next
old	elder	eldest

G. There is another way of comparing adjectives—that is by using the words *more* and *most* before the positive degree. For instance, *this man is happy. That man is more happy, but the other man is the most happy.*

You must remember that the comparative degree is used when we compare two things, and the superlative when we compare three or more things. Mistakes are often made on this point. If two books were given me, I might say *This is pretty, but that is the prettier of the two.* It would be incorrect to say *that is the prettiest*, because there are only two books. So again, I might say, *Here are three men, which is the healthiest?* but if there were only two men I ought to say *which is the healthier?*

Summary.

G. How are changes or inflexions made in adjectives?

P. By the degrees of comparison.

G. How many degrees of comparison are there?

* The words marked * may be either adjectives or adverbs, according to the meaning of the sentence in which they are used.

P. Three ; positive, comparative, and superlative.

G. What does the positive degree express ?

P. A simple quality, such as hard, soft, &c.

G. How is the comparative formed ?

P. By adding *er* to the positive.

G. How is the superlative formed ?

P. By adding *est* to the positive.

G. Are the degrees of all adjectives formed in like manner ?

P. No, some are formed irregularly, as good, better, best.

G. Is there any other way of marking the degrees of comparison ?

P. Yes ; by the use of the words *more* and *most*, as *happy*, *more happy*, *most happy*.

G. When do we use the comparative degree ?

P. When we compare two things.

G. When do we use the superlative degree ?

P. When we compare three or more things.

Exercise.

This man is *wise*, but his father was *wiser*. The *swiftest* of the three won the race. This apple is *good*, but these are *better*, and the golden pippin is the *best* of all. Which of the five children is the *eldest* ? The red rose is the *sweetest*. I was *happy* yesterday, but this is the *happiest* day of my life. The *longest* day has the *shortest* night. Spring is *colder* than autumn. The queen was *pale*, but the *princess* was *paler*. He died the *next* night.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE, AND POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

G. As pronouns are used instead of nouns, they have cases like nouns. When I say *He scolds me*, which is the pronoun that does the action?

P. *He*.

G. Which is the pronoun acted upon, or the object of the action?

P. *Me*.

G. The *he* is—?

P. The nominative.

G. And *me* is—?

P. The objective.

G. The pronouns in the nominative case have been already learnt. The pronouns in the objective case may be known at once by putting a preposition such as *of* or *to* before them. We do not say he speaks of *I*, she talks to *he*, but—?

P. He speaks of *me*, she talks to *him*.

G. Now repeat the personal pronouns in the objective case, putting *of* before them.

Singular.

Plural.

P. 1st person (of)	me	1st person (of)	us
2nd	„ thee	2nd	„ you
3rd	„ him, her, it	3rd	„ them

G. Personal pronouns in the possessive case are often called *possessive adjective pronouns*, because

they come before a noun, and show to whom anything belongs, as *my* book, *his* mother. You will know them at once by putting a noun, such as *book*, *mother*, &c., after them. Now repeat them—

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
P. 1st person	my	} mother	1st person	our	} mother.
2nd "	thy		2nd "	your	
3rd "	his, her,		3rd "	their	
	or its				

G. *My, thy, his, &c., our, your, their* are put before nouns. We use other possessive pronouns *after* a noun, or when the noun is left out. For instance, we say, *this is my book*, or *this book is*—?

P. Mine.

G. *This is thy book*, or *this book is* — ?

P. Thine.

G. Or if we leave out the noun we may still say *This is mine, this is thine*. Now repeat these pronouns.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
P. 1st person	mine.		1st person	ours.	
2nd "	thine.		2nd "	yours	
3rd "	his, her, or its		3rd "	theirs	

Exercise.

My brother said to *me* yesterday: *This* book is *yours*, but *I* thought it was *mine*. Now *I* give it to *you*, and *your* name is written in *it*. *Its* pages will interest Charles, and *you* must read it to *him*. *His* behaviour to *us* has been excellent. The credit is *theirs* though the trouble has been *ours*. *They* have written to *me*, but *I* have not replied to *their* questions.

Summary.

G. How many cases have personal pronouns ?

P. Three, nominative, objective, and possessive.

G. Which are the personal pronouns in the nominative case ?

P. I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they.

G. Which are the personal pronouns in the objective case ?

P. Me, thee, him, her, it, us, you, them.

G. How may personal pronouns in the objective case be known ?

P. By putting a preposition before them.

G. Give an example.

P. Of me, to thee, before him, by them, for it, against us, between you, below them.

G. What do personal pronouns in the possessive case show ?

P. To whom anything belongs.

G. Which are the personal possessive pronouns used before a noun ?

P. My, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their.

G. What are these pronouns often called ?

P. Possessive adjective pronouns.

G. Why ?

P. Because they are placed before nouns to express possession.

G. Which are the personal possessive pronouns used after a noun or when the noun is omitted ?

P. Mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

G. There are other words which at first sight scarcely seem to be pronouns, but which are so called because they always relate to some person or thing or phrase going before them.

These relative pronouns, as they are termed, are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. We will see now how they are used. *He who is good will be rewarded.* What does *who* relate to?

P. He.

G. The word or phrase to which the pronoun relates is called the *Antecedent*. *He* is the antecedent to *who* in the sentence I have just given. *The book which you have torn must be mended.* What does *which* relate to?

P. The book.

G. Then *book* is the antecedent to—?

P. — *which*.

G. *The bird that I saw is lame.* What does *that* relate to?

P. The bird.

G. Then *bird* is—?

P. The antecedent to *that*.

G. *Who* is applied to persons. We do not say, *the man which is good*, but *the man who is good*. *Which* is always applied to animals or things. We do not say, *the fish who was caught*, but—

P. *The fish which was caught.*

G. Yes, or *the fish that was caught*; for we may

use *that* either for persons, animals or things. But observe, if I am speaking of a person in the objective case I must use another word for the relative *who*. Instead of saying, *the boy who I saw*, I must say, the boy—?

P. Whom I saw.

G. Not the *children who I punished*, but—?

P. The children *whom I punished*.

G. Not the *person who she spoke to* but—?

P. The persons *whom she spoke to*.

G. Yes, *whom* is the objective case of *who*. You must remember this particularly, because a mistake on the point is very common. You will sometimes hear persons say, *the man who she saw*. This is wrong, because the relative *who* does not relate to the nominative *she*; and the relative must always agree in *number* and *case* with the antecedent.

I will give you another instance—*the children who I love*. Why is that wrong?

P. Because the relative *who* does not relate to the nominative.

G. But there is another case—the possessive. I may say, *The man who builds a house*. *Who* is the nominative. *The man whose house is built*. *Whose* is the possessive. *The man whom I have seen building a house*. *Whom* is the objective. Now repeat the changes of case, or as it is said in grammar, *decline* the relative pronoun *who*.

P. Nominative Who

Possessive Whose

Objective Whom.

G. But you will see that *which* and *that* do not change in the objective. We say *the bird which sings*, and *the bird which I heard singing*. *The kitten that plays*, or *the kitten that I saw playing*. Now decline the relatives *which* and *that*.

P. Nominative Which or that

Possessive Whose

Objective Which or that.

G. The antecedent is not always one word only; for instance, we may say—*She has not learnt to be obedient, which is the chief duty required of a child*. What is the chief duty that is required?

P. To be obedient.

G. *To be obedient* is the antecedent to the relative *which*.

G. *The burning of the house which I saw from my window caused the poor woman's death*. What was it that caused the woman's death?

P. The burning of the house.

G. *The burning of the house* is therefore the antecedent, and the verb *caused* is in the 3rd person singular, for we may say *it caused the poor woman's death*.

G. What is called a compound relative, because it stands for the antecedent and the relative, and may be expressed by *that which* or *those which*. Give me *what I want*, or—?

P. Give me *that which* I want.

G. *The man has worked well, give him what he has earned*, or—?

P. Give him *that which* he has earned.

G. What do we call the pronoun *what* ?

P. A compound relative.

G. Why ?

P. Because it stands for the antecedent and the relative together.

Summary.

G. Repeat the relative pronouns.

P. Who, Which, That, and What.

G. Why are they called relative ?

P. Because they relate to some person, or thing, or phrase, going before.

G. What is the word or phrase to which the pronoun refers called ?

P. The antecedent.

G. What must the relative agree with ?

P. It must agree with the antecedent in number and person.

G. May the relative pronouns be used indiscriminately ?

P. No. *Who* relates to persons, *which* to animals and things, and *that* relates to all three.

G. Have relative pronouns cases ?

P. Yes, three : nominative, possessive, and objective.

G. Decline the pronoun *who*.

P. Nominative *Who*, possessive *Whose*, objective *Whom*.

G. What very frequent mistake is made in the use of the relative *who* ?

P. The nominative is used instead of the objective,

as the person *who she saw*, instead of the person *WHOM she saw*.

G. Why is it wrong to say 'The person *who she saw* ?'

P. Because the relative *who* does not relate to the nominative *she*.

G. Are the relatives *that* and *which* declined differently from *who* ?

P. Yes, they do not change in the objective.

G. Decline *that* and *which*.

P. Nominative That or Which, possessive Whose, objective That or Which.

G. Is the antecedent always one word only ?

P. No, it may be a portion of a sentence, as, *She has not learnt to be obedient, which is the chief duty required of a child*. 'To be obedient' is in this sentence the antecedent ; and in cases like this the verb is in the 3rd person singular.

G. Describe the relative pronoun *what*.

P. It is a *compound* relative, because it stands for the antecedent and the relative together.

G. By what other words may it be expressed ?

P. By *that which* or *those which*.

Exercise.

The boy *whom* I saw. The girl *whose* frock is torn. Give me *what* I ask. The man *who* ran down the lane. The cat *that* caught the mouse. *Whom* were you talking to. The dogs *whose* tails are curly. The book *which* my sister was reading. The king

whose subjects are loyal. The child *that* can learn easily. The soldiers *whom* he commanded. It was the love of his country *which* made the man so brave. The dread of the future *which* we all sometimes feel. The dread of the future *which* we cannot foresee.*

INTERROGATIVE, INDEFINITE, COMPOUND,
AND RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

G. The Relative Pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what* are used in asking questions, and they are then called *Interrogative Pronouns*. Think of some questions.

P. Who built this house?

Which wine do you wish for?

What is he doing?

G. What are these relative pronouns termed when they are used in asking questions?

P. Interrogative Pronouns.

G. The same mistake is often made in using these words interrogatively as when they are used relatively. Persons say, Who did you see? If you think, you will perceive that *who* does not relate to the nominative *you*, and therefore you ought to say—

P. *Whom* did you see?

G. Again; not *who* did you talk to, but—

* It should be pointed out, that in the two latter sentences the antecedents differ. In the first, the antecedent is '*the dread of the future*.' In the second, '*the future*' only.

P. Whom did you talk to ?

G. Other and another are also pronouns, and so is one when it is used for a person, as One cannot tell what to do. These words are called Indefinite Adjective Pronouns, because they do not stand for any particular noun. What are these words, other, another, and one called ?

P. Indefinite Adjective Pronouns.

G. Other, another, and one, have a possessive case, and other is used in the plural. Thus we can say, 'This is the other's book,' meaning This is the other person's book ; or 'Others have done wrong,' meaning Other persons have done wrong. 'I never take another's duty ; one's own is enough ;' meaning—

P. I never take the duty of another person, the duty belonging to myself is enough.

G. There is still one more class of pronouns, often called Compound Pronouns, because they are made up, or compounded, of two words, one of which is a pronoun. My-self, thy-self, &c. are compound pronouns. Now repeat them.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>P. Myself.</i>	<i>Ourselves.</i>
<i>Thyself.</i>	<i>Yourselves.</i>
<i>Himself.</i>	<i>Themselves.</i>
<i>Herself.</i>	
<i>Itself.</i>	

G. There are others of the same kind. My own, her own ; but these two words are never written as one, though they may be called one in grammar. So

also *whoever, whichever, whatever, whatsoever* are compound pronouns. *Each other* and *one another* are compound pronouns, but usually they are called *Reciprocal Pronouns*, because *reciprocal* means the influence which two things or persons have upon one another. What are *each other* and *one another* called?

P. Reciprocal pronouns.

Summary.

G. Which are the pronouns used in asking questions?

P. The relative pronouns, *Who, Which, That, and What*.

G. What are these pronouns termed when thus used?

P. They are termed interrogative pronouns.

G. What mistake is frequently made when the pronoun *who* is used interrogatively?

P. The nominative is used instead of the objective.

G. Give an example.

P. *Who did you speak to?* instead of *whom did you speak to?*

G. Why is this wrong?

P. Because the pronoun *who* does not relate to the nominative *you*.

G. Which are the indefinite adjective pronouns?

P. *Other, another, and one*, when it is used to express a person.

G. Can they be declined?

P. Yes, they have a possessive case, and *other* is used in the plural.

G. What are compound pronouns ?

P. Words made up or compounded of a pronoun and some other word.

G. Give me an example of compound pronouns.

P. Myself, thyself, himself, &c.

My own, our own, their own, &c.

Whoever, whichever, whatever, &c.

G. What name is given to the compound pronouns *each other* and *one another* ?

P. They are called reciprocal pronouns.

G. Why ?

P. Because reciprocal expresses the influence which one person or thing has upon another.

(*Other*, *another*, and *one* are sometimes called indefinite adjectives.)

Exercise on Pronouns.

(The pupil should be required to describe each pronoun.)

He, whose book I lost gave me another. I dislike the person who thinks himself good. The birds built their nests in the wood, and from every tree that I climbed I took several nests. Whose house looks the largest? The horse which you bought died yesterday. Who called upon me? The girl whom you saw in another's house, but who lives in a home of her own. One says that he will come, and another disbelieves it. Others laughed at him, but I, who knew

the sorrow *that he* caused *his* wife, felt miserable. *My* aunt loved *her* cousin's child, but disliked *mine*. *What* punishment will follow *his* crime? The lion roared in *its* den, and *he who* heard it trembled. *Whom* was it you were speaking to?

VERBS.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

G. Verbs vary and are more perplexing than any other words. The first thing to be decided when we examine them is the kind of verb, or the class to which it belongs. There are two kinds of verbs—one expresses an action which is done to some one or something else—as, *the master teaches me; he wakes the dog* Whom does the master teach?

P. Me.

G. What does he wake?

P. The dog.

G. Verbs which thus pass from the person who acts, to an object acted upon, are called *active* or *transitive* verbs, for transitive means *passing over*. You may know them generally by putting a noun or pronoun after them, and observing if it makes sense. *As to cut—?*

P. An apple.

G. To shake—?

P. The table.

G. To bite—?

P. The bread.

G. What are these verbs—*cut, shake, bite*, called?

P. Active or transitive verbs.

G. But there are a great many verbs which express merely something which is done by oneself. These words are called *neuter* or *intransitive* verbs, because the action does not pass over to any object. You may know them generally by trying to put a noun or pronoun upon which they are to act after them, when you will find that they do not make sense. For instance, *to sleep*. You cannot say *to sleep it*; *to run*, you cannot say *to run it*. *To sleep* and *to run* are therefore—

P. Neuter or intransitive verbs.

G. To walk? Is that transitive or intransitive?

P. Intransitive?

G. To shoot?

P. Transitive.

G. To smile?

P. Intransitive.

G. Transitive verbs have what are called two Voices—*active* and *passive*. If I say, *she loves me*, the transitive verb *to love* is in the Active Voice. If I say, *I am loved by her*, then the verb *to love* is in the Passive Voice. Passive means to bear or endure. The Passive Voice is formed by the help of the verb *to be*; as, *to be loved, to be caught, to be grieved*.

G. How many Voices have active or transitive verbs?

P. Two. Active and passive.

G. Now try and change the Active Voice of some transitive verbs into the Passive Voice. *I touch?*

P. I am touched.

G. I hate ?

P. I am hated.

G. I fear ?

P. I am feared.

G. I catch ?

P. I am caught.

G. I love ?

P. I am loved.

G. Intransitive verbs have no Passive Voice. We cannot say *I am slept, I am smiled, I am run.*

Summary.

G. How many kinds of verbs are there ?

P. Two. Active or transitive, and neuter or intransitive.

G. What is the meaning of transitive ?

P. Passing over.

G. Why are some verbs called active or transitive verbs ?

P. Because they express an action passing over from the person who acts to an object acted upon ; thus, *the master teaches me.*

G. How may a transitive verb often be known ?

P. By putting a noun after it and observing whether it makes sense ; as, *She cuts an apple. They shake the table. You spoil the dress.*

G. What is meant by a neuter or intransitive verb ?

P. A verb which expresses something done or felt.

but which does not pass over to any object; as, *to sleep, to run, to talk.*

G. How many Voices have transitive verbs?

P. Two. Active and passive.

G. What is the meaning of passive?

P. Bearing or enduring.

G. How is the Passive Voice formed?

P. By the help of the verb *to be*.

G. Give some instances of the Active and Passive Voices of transitive verbs. To strike?

P. Active, *to strike*. Passive, *to be struck*.

G. To hurt?

P. Active, *to hurt*. Passive, *to be hurt*.

G. To shoot?

P. Active, *to shoot*. Passive, *to be shot*.

G. Have intransitive verbs a Passive Voice?

P. No. We cannot say *to be slept, to be run, to be talked*.

Exercise on Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.

She *screamed* loudly and he *answered* her. The child *sleeps* and the mother *watches* over it. *To be feared*. Charles *loves* his mother. She *endured* great suffering. James *talks* and Martha *listens*. She *is to be praised*. You will *come* to-morrow, I *hope*. They *give* but they *wish to receive*. The brother *loves* his sister dearly. She *forgets* what she *said*. Evil *is to be hated*. He *hates* his enemy. Mary *is to be loved*. He *despises* an ungenerous action, and it *is justly to be despised*.*

* *It must be remembered that a verb is not transitive, simply because we can put the pronoun it after it and make sense, for*

The Indicative Mood.

G. The next question to be settled is the mood or manner of the verb. The tenses which you have already learnt are in the Indicative Mood. *Indicative* means *pointing out*. The indicative mood simply states that an action is done, or has been done, or will be done, as *I play*, *I played*, or *I shall play*. What does Indicative mean?

P. Pointing out.

G. What does the indicative mood state?

P. It states or indicates that an action is done, or has been done.

G. There are several Tenses in the indicative mood besides those which you have already learnt, but you will find that they cannot be formed without the aid of the verb *to have*. For instance, *I have played*, *I had played* are both tenses of the indicative mood of the verb *to play*. It will be well to learn these tenses and their names.

(A child will readily conjugate the tenses of a verb by being prompted to the 1st person. Afterwards they may be learnt as a regular lesson.)

TO PLAY.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I play	1st per. We play
2nd „ Thou playest	2nd „ You play
3rd „ He, she, or it plays	3rd „ They play

we can say she *endured it*, *I hope it*, and yet *endure* and *hope* are neuter verbs, because they express something felt by the individual, and not something done to another person or thing.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I played	1st per. We played
2nd „ Thou playedst	2nd „ You played
3rd „ He, she, or it played	3rd „ They played

PERFECT TENSE OR PRESENT COMPLETE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I have played	1st per. We have played
2nd „ Thou hast played	2nd „ You have played
3rd „ He, she, &c. has played	3rd „ They have played

PLUPERFECT TENSE, OR PAST COMPLETE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I had played	1st per. We had played
2nd „ Thou hadst played	2nd „ You had played
3rd „ He, she, &c. had played	3rd „ They had played

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I shall or will play	1st per. We shall play
2nd „ Thou shalt play	2nd „ You shall play
3rd „ He, she, &c. shall play	3rd „ They shall play

FUTURE PERFECT OR FUTURE COMPLETE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I shall or will have played	1st per. We shall have played
2nd „ Thou shalt have played	2nd „ You shall have played
3rd „ He &c. shall have played	3rd „ They shall have played

G. The verb *to have* is called an *Auxiliary*, or helping verb, because, as you have seen, it helps other verbs. What is the verb *to have* called?

P. An auxiliary or helping verb.

G. Now repeat the tenses in the indicative mood of the verbs *to love*, *to call*, *to jump*, *to scream*, *to fear*.

Summary.

G. What is meant by the mood of a verb ?

P. The manner of the verb.

G. Which is the first mood ?

P. The indicative.

G. What is the meaning of indicative ?

P. Pointing out.

G. What does the indicative mood show ?

P. It states or indicates that an action is done, or has been done, or will be done.

G. How many tenses are there in the indicative mood ?

P. Six.

G. Name them.

P. The present, the past, the perfect or present complete, the pluperfect or past complete, the future, and the future complete.

G. What verb is required to assist in forming some of these tenses ?

P. The verb *to have*.

G. What is the verb *to have* called ?

P. An auxiliary or helping verb.

G. Why ?

P. Because it helps to form other verbs.

G. Which tenses in the indicative mood are formed by the help of the verb *to have*.

P. The present complete, the past complete, and the future complete.

Exercise.

She has played. He will have learned. They had

spoken. You have danced. I will reply. It has fallen. I shall have forgotten. You laughed. She had deceived. You remember. We have declared. It will break. We shall have jumped.

(The pupil should also be made to answer questions put in the following form :—)

<i>Verb.</i>	<i>Tense.</i>	<i>Per.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	
G. To play	Present	3rd	Singular	P. He plays
To learn	Past	1st	Plural	We learned
To speak	Future	2nd	Singular	Thou wilt speak
To dance	Perfect or Pres. Com.	1st	Plural	We have danced
To reply	Pluperfect or Past. Com.	2nd	Plural	You had replied
To fall	Future	3rd	Singular	He will fall
To forget	Present Complete	1st	Singular	I have forgotten
To laugh	Future Complete	2nd	Plural	You will have forgotten
To deceive	Past	1st	Plural	We deceived
To remember	Future	3rd	Singular	She will remember
To declare	Future Complete	3rd	Plural	They will have declared
To jump	Present Complete	3rd	Singular	She has jumped

CONTINUATION OF THE MOODS OF VERBS.

G. The next mood is the *Imperative*, which expresses command or entreaty. The meaning of *imperative* is *commanding*. There is no tense except *the present* in the Imperative Mood, and no 1st

person singular, because we do not command or entreat ourselves. The following is the imperative mood of the verb *to play* :—

Imperative Mood.

2nd person sing.	Play, or play thou
3rd „	Let him, her, or it play
1st person plural	Let us play
2nd „	Play, or play ye
3rd „	Let them play.

(Repeat this mood with the verbs *to love*, *to talk*, *to run*, *to jump*, &c.)

G. You see that the word *let* is employed to form this mood. *Let* is therefore called the sign of the imperative mood.

The next mood is the *Subjunctive* or *Conjunctive*, for the conjunctions *if*, *though*, &c., are always used in forming the tenses of this mood. The Subjunctive Mood implies that an event is in the future and uncertain. It differs slightly from the Indicative. Instead of saying ‘If I play—if thou *playest*, &c., we say—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. If I play	1st per. If we play
2nd „ If thou play	2nd „ If you play
3rd „ If he play	3rd „ If they play

In the past tense, used for the future, we say—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. If I played	1st per. If we played
2nd „ If thou played	2nd „ If you played
3rd „ If he played	3rd „ If they played

There is in fact no change in the verb when we use a conjunction before it to express uncertainty. For example, we say, *If it rain to-morrow do not expect me. If he go with you he will certainly manage to join you in time.* Now tell me what is the sign of the subjunctive mood ?

P. A conjunction expressing doubt, such as *if, though, &c.*

G. And what is the peculiarity of the subjunctive mood ?

P. That the verb does not change when we use a conjunction before it to express that an event is in the future and uncertain.

G. The mood following the subjunctive is the *Potential*. *Potential* means *having power*, and the Potential Mood is so called because it always implies power, or the possibility that something may be done or may happen, as *I may ride; She can talk; He would or could go.* The potential mood has four tenses, present, imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect, and they are formed by the help of the verbs *may, can, and will*, and sometimes *must*, thus :—

Potential Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I may or can play	1st per. We may or can play
2nd „ Thou mayst or canst play	2nd „ You may or can play
3rd „ He, she, it, may or can play	3rd „ They may or can play

IMPERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I might, could, would or should play	1st per. We might, could, would or should play
2nd „ Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst play	2nd „ You might, could, would or should play
3rd „ He might, could, would or should play	3rd „ They might, could, would or should play

PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I may or can have played	1st per. We may or can have played
2nd „ Thou mayst or canst have played	2nd „ You may or can have played
3rd „ He may or can have played	3rd „ They may or can have played

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I might, could, should, or would have played	1st per. We might, could, should, or would have played
2nd „ Thou mightst, couldst, shouldst, &c.	2nd „ You might, could, should, &c.
3rd „ He might, could, should, &c.	3rd „ They might, could, should, &c.

G. Why is this mood called potential ?

P. Because it implies the power or possibility that something may be done or may happen. *Potential* means *having power*.

G. The last mood is the *Infinitive*, which is really only the simple mood of expressing the verb ; as, to play, to jump, to love ; but it is generally said to have two tenses.

Present—To play.

Perfect—To have played.

(Before any exercise upon the verb is given, the pupil should be accustomed to conjugate several verbs in all the moods and tenses. Thus—the indicative, imperative, subjunctive, potential, and infinitive moods of the following verbs may be repeated : *To have, to jump, to call, to snatch, to love, to smile, to try, to dislike, to fear.*)

Summary.

G. What does the imperative mood express ?

P. Command or entreaty.

G. Why is it called imperative ?

P. Because the meaning of imperative is commanding.

G. Why has the imperative mood no first person singular ?

P. Because we do not command or entreat ourselves.

G. What is the sign of the imperative mood ?

P. Let.

G. What mood follows the imperative ?

P. The subjunctive or conjunctive.

G. Which of the conjunctions are generally used in forming this mood ?

P. The conjunctions expressing doubt, such as *if*, *though*, &c.

G. What is the peculiarity of the subjunctive mood ?

P. That the verb does not change when we use a conjunction before it to express that an event is future and uncertain ; as, '*If it rain to-morrow*, do not expect me ;' '*If he go with you* he will certainly manage to join you in time.'

G. What is the meaning of the potential mood ?

P. It implies the power or possibility that something may be done, or may happen.

G. What verbs are used to assist in forming the potential mood ?

P. May, Can, Will, and sometimes Must.

G. How many tenses has the potential mood ?

P. Four. Present, imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect.

PARTICIPLES.

G. When you were repeating the perfect tense of the verb to play, what was the word which followed the helping verb ? You said, I have—

P. Played.

G. Yes. *I have played, thou hast played, he has played, &c.* Or if you were conjugating the verb to jump, it would be, I have—

P. Jumped.

G. These words *played, jumped*, and others like them, which are used with the auxiliary verbs *To have* and *To be*, are called *Participles*. The word *participle* is derived from a Latin word, *participare*, which means to partake ; and participles are so called because they partake of the nature both of a verb and an adjective. What is a participle ?

P. A word which partakes of the nature both of a verb and an adjective.

G. Verbs have usually three participles. Those in the Active Voice are the present, the past or perfect, and the compound perfect. The present participle expresses an action performed at the present time, as *eating, dancing, jumping, playing* ; it always ends in *-ing*. Very often it is called the Gerund or Active Participle. The Past or Perfect Participle as a rule ends in *-ed*, but there are a great many exceptions. You can always know the perfect participle by putting the verb *to have* before it ; as, *to have written, to have jumped to have loved, to have hated. Written, jumped, loved, hated*, are what ?

P. Past or perfect participles.

G. And *writing, jumping, loving, hating*, are — ?

P.—present participles.

G. Which are also called—

P.—gerunds or active participles.

G. The Compound Perfect Participle is formed by the union of the gerund and the perfect participle ; as, *having loved, having hated*. Now repeat the three *participles of the verbs To love and To hate*.

<i>P. Gerund or Active.</i>	<i>Past or</i>	<i>Compound</i>
<i>Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
loving	loved	having loved
hating	hated	having hated

G. The participles in the Passive Voice are formed in the same way, but they differ a little in name. The participles of the verb *to be loved*, for instance, are—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Perfect or Passive.</i>	<i>Compound Perfect.</i>
being loved	loved	having been loved

Now repeat the participles of the verbs *To be hated* and *To be scolded*—

<i>P. Present.</i>	<i>Perfect or Passive.</i>	<i>Compound Perfect.</i>
being hated	hated	having been hated
being scolded	scolded	having been scolded

G. The present participle is often used as a noun, and sometimes as an adjective. We may say '*He is writing, or jumping, or talking.*' Then *writing, jumping, and talking* are—

P.—Present participles.

G. But we may also say '*the writing is good,*' or '*the jumping is tiresome,*' or '*the talking is wearisome.*' Then the three words are—

P.—Nouns.

G. We may also say '*the jumping dog,*' or '*the talking parrot.*' Then *jumping and talking* are—

P.—Adjectives.

(By carefully attending to the meaning of a word

and its place in a sentence, it is easy to determine to which part of speech it belongs, but attention is absolutely necessary, as the chief perplexities of grammar arise from the use of the same word in different relations.)

G. A similar remark may be made about passive participles. They are often just like adjectives. If I say '*He is deceived*,' *deceived* is—

P.—a passive participle.

G. A *deceived* parent. *Deceived* is—

P.—an adjective.

G. *She is beloved*. *Beloved* is—

P.—a passive participle.

G. A *beloved* friend. *Beloved* is—

P.—an adjective.

G. The perfect participle helps to show whether a verb is what is called *Regular* or *Irregular*. In all regular verbs it ends in *-ed*, and so also does the past tense. The verb *to love*, for instance, is regular. The past tense is *lov-ed*, and the perfect participle is *lov-ed*. Now give me the past tense and perfect participle of some other verbs. To play—

P. Past tense *play-ed*, perfect participle *play-ed*.

G. To call.

P. Past tense *call-ed*, perfect participle *call-ed*.

G. To scream.

P. Past tense *scream-ed*, perfect participle *scream-ed*.

G. All those verbs are regular, but now try some others. To write—the past tense is not *writ-ed*, but—

P.—*wrote*.

G. And the perfect participle is—

P.—written.

G. To catch.

P. Past tense *caught*, perfect participle *caught*.

G. *To write* and *To catch* are irregular verbs.

Sometimes the past tense is regular, and only the participle irregular, but the verb is still called an irregular verb. Thus the verb *to lade* has the past tense *laded*, and the participle *laden*.

Examples of Irregular Verbs.

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken
speak	spoke	spoken
bring	brought	brought
ring	rang	rung
slay	slew	slain
lay (to place)	laid	laid
Lie (to lie down)	lay	lain

Summary.

G. From what is the word participle derived?

P. From a Latin word *participare*, which means to partake. Participles are so called because they partake of the nature both of a verb and an adjective.

G. How many participles have verbs usually?

P. Three.

G. Which are those of the Active Voice?

P. The present, the past or perfect, and the compound perfect.

G. What does the present participle express ?

P. An action performed at the present time, as *eating, dancing, jumping, &c.*

G. What is the termination of the present participle ?

P. *-ing.*

G. What other name is given to the present participle in the Active Voice.

P. The gerund, or active participle.

G. What is the regular termination of the past or perfect participle ?

P. *-ed*, but there are many exceptions.

G. How may a past or perfect participle be known ?

P. By putting the verb *to have* before it, as *to have loved, to have hated*. *Loved* and *hated* are perfect participles.

G. How is the compound perfect participle formed ?

P. By the gerund and perfect participle, as *having loved, having hated*.

Examples of Participles in the Active Voice.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Compound Perfect.</i>
telling	told	having told
seeking	sought	having sought
finding	found	having found
knowing	known	having known

G. Which are the participles in the Passive Voice ?

P. The present, the perfect or passive, and the compound perfect, as :—Present, *being hated* ; perfect or passive, *hated* ; compound perfect, *having been hated*.

G. Are present participles ever used in any other sense?

P. Yes, they are sometimes nouns and sometimes adjectives.

G. Give an example.

P. *He is talking*—then *talking* is a participle. *Talking is pleasant*—then *talking* is a noun. *A talking parrot*—then *talking* is an adjective.

G. Do perfect or passive participles resemble adjectives?

P. Yes. If I say '*He is deceived*'—*deceived* is a passive participle; but if I say '*A deceived parent*'—*deceived* is an adjective.

G. In what way does the formation of the perfect participle help to determine whether a verb is regular or irregular?

P. In regular verbs the perfect participle, as well as the past tense, ends in *-ed*, as *lov-ed*, *call-ed*, *hat-ed*. To *love*, to *call*, to *hate*, are regular verbs.

Exercise on Participles.

(It must be remembered that the examples given in this exercise may be considered as formed either by the complete tenses of the verbs, or by the participles added to the tenses of the auxiliary. As an exercise on participles, it is desirable that in the present instance the examples be parsed in the latter sense. Adjectives and nouns which may be taken for perfect participles and gerunds are introduced for the sake of practice.)

I have *played*. They are *writing*. *Having* loved her once, I have *loved* her always. *Being* taken into the house, I saw my friends. *Having been deceived*, he has never *trusted* her again. She has *worked* too much, and he has *helped* her. *Having talked* so much, I am tired. *Being* industrious, he has *been* successful in life. He has *tired* me and he is tired himself. *Walking* is a delightful exercise. He has *been walking*. *Dancing* is very pleasant. When she is *dancing* she looks happy. I was *fatigued* when I had *written* it a second time. He has *hindered* me greatly. She is *grieved*. Have you *seen* the *dancing* bear? *Learning* is invaluable. She was *learning* her lesson. A *growing* child. She is *helping* him.

(The pupil should be asked whether the verbs to which the participles belong are regular or irregular.)

THE AUXILIARY VERB TO BE, AND THE DEFECTIVE AND IMPERSONAL VERBS.

G. We have hitherto spoken chiefly of the auxiliary or helping verb *to have*, but we must not forget the other auxiliary *to be*; for, as we have seen, it is used whenever we wish to form the Passive Voice of a transitive verb, as, *to be hated*, *to be loved*. It is a complete verb, with every mood and tense perfect. We will go through it.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I am	1st per. We are.
2nd „ Thou art	2nd „ Ye or you are
3rd „ He, she, or it is	3rd „ They are

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I was	1st per. We were
2nd „ Thou wast	2nd „ Ye or you were
3rd „ He, &c. was	3rd „ They were

PRESENT COMPLETE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I have been	1st per. We have been
2nd „ Thou hast been	2nd „ You have been
3rd „ He has been	3rd „ They have been

PAST COMPLETE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I had been	1st per. We had been
2nd „ Thou hadst been	2nd „ You had been
3rd „ He had been	3rd „ They had been

FUTURE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I shall or will be	1st per. We shall or will be
2nd „ Thou shalt or wilt be	2nd „ You shall or will be
3rd „ He shall or will be	3rd „ They shall or will be

FUTURE COMPLETE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. I shall or will have been	1st per. We shall or will have been
2nd „ Thou shalt or wilt have been	2nd „ You shall or will have been
3rd „ He shall or will have been	3rd „ They shall or will have been

Imperative Mood.

Be or be thou	Let us be
Let him be	Be or be ye
	Let them be

Subjunctive or Conjunctive Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. If I be, &c.	1st per. If we be, &c.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st per. If I were, &c.	1st per. If we were, &c.

PERFECT.

PLUPERFECT.

1st per. If I have been, &c.	1st per. If I had been, &c.
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Potential Mood.

PRESENT.

IMPERFECT.

I may or can be, &c.	I might or could be, &c.
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PERFECT.

PLUPERFECT.

I may have been, &c.	I might have been, &c.
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Participles.

PRESENT.

PAST.

COMPOUND PAST.

Being

Been

Having been

(The verb *to be* should be learned perfectly and questions should be asked in reference to it before proceeding further.)

G. One thing to be especially remarked about the verb *to be*, is that in English it takes the same case after it as that which goes before it. This rule will be more easily understood by an illustration. *I am a poor man.* In what case is *I*?

P. The nominative.

G. *I* and *man* mean the same individual; therefore *man* will be in the nominative case also. *She is the girl who stole the book.* *She* and *girl* mean the same individual; *she* is in the nominative case, and *girl* will be—?

P.—nominative likewise.

G. But if I use the verb *To have*, and say, 'I have a poor man to take care of,' *I* and *the man* are not the same individual; and therefore, although *I* is in the nominative case, *man* will be in—?

P.—the objective.

G. *She has seen the girl who stole the book.* *She* and *the girl* are not the same individual; *she* is in the nominative, and *girl* is in—?

P.—the objective.

G. So, *I am a goose* and *I have a goose* express very different meanings. A mistake is very common upon this point. Persons say, 'It is me,' or 'her,' or 'him' who did it; instead of 'It is I,' or 'he,' or she.' They forget that the verb *to be* (of which *is* is a part) takes the same case after it as that which goes before it, and therefore if the pronoun *it*, which precedes the verb *is*, is in the nominative, the pronoun which follows must be so likewise. Tell me why it is ungrammatical to say, 'It is *him* who did it'?

P. Because *It* is in the nominative, and *him* is in the objective case, and the verb *to be*, takes always the same case after it as that which goes before it.

G. The other auxiliary verbs, *shall* and *will*, *may* and *can*, which are used to mark the moods, cannot be conjugated throughout like the verbs *to have* and *to*

be, and therefore they are called *Defective Verbs*. We cannot say *to may* or *to can*, or *I shall may*, *I shall can*. *Must* and *ought* are also defective verbs. Which are the defective verbs?

P. Shall, will, may, can, must and ought.

G. *Must* has no variation of any kind. It is sometimes considered one of the signs of the potential mood. *Ought* is not an auxiliary, but an independent verb used in the present or the past. We can say, '*I ought to go to-day*,' or '*I ought to have gone yesterday*.' What is the peculiarity of the auxiliary verb *must*?

P. That it has no variations of any kind.

G. What is to be remarked of the defective verb *ought*?

P. That it is an independent verb used in the present and the past.

G. We might be inclined to think that *ought* can be used in the future; for we often say, *I ought to go to-morrow*. But by this expression we mean that we feel at the present moment that we have a duty to perform the next day, and therefore *ought* is in the present tense.

Another auxiliary verb which we employ when we wish to express ourselves strongly is the verb *To do*. For instance, we say, '*I love*,' or '*I do love*.' What tense of the verb *To love* is that?

P. The present.

G. *I played* or *I did play*. What tense of the verb *To play* is that?

P. The past.

G. In those cases the verb *To do* is used as an auxiliary, but when used alone we can conjugate it throughout as *I shall do, I may do, I might do, or I shall have done, I might have done, &c.*

There is a sense also in which the verb *To will* can be conjugated throughout. It is when we use it to express a fixed determination. As, *He has willed or determined to do it. I may will to go and then you cannot prevent it.* But usually *will* is considered as a defective verb.

Some verbs, such as *To rain, To hail, &c.*, are used only in the third person singular—as *It rains, It may hail, &c.* These are called *Impersonal Verbs*.

A verb is said to be conjugated interrogatively when the nominative is placed after it, as *Have I? Move I? or Do I move?*

Summary.

G. Which is the Auxiliary or Helping Verb used in the formation of the passive voice of transitive verbs?

P. The verb *To be*, as *To be loved, To be hated.*

G. Is the verb *To be*, a complete verb?

P. Yes; it may be conjugated in all the moods and tenses.

G. What is the rule especially to be remembered in English in connection with the verb *To be*?

P. That it takes the same case after it as that which goes before it.

G. How is the rule frequently broken?

P. By saying, *It is me*, or *him*, or *her*, &c., who did it, instead of *It is I*, *he*, *she*, &c.

G. Why is this ungrammatical?

P. Because the pronoun *it*, which precedes the verb *to be* is in the nominative case, whilst the pronoun which follows is in the objective case.

G. Can all helping verbs be conjugated throughout?

P. No; some are defective.

G. Which are the defective auxiliary verbs?

P. Shall, will, may, can, and must.

G. What is the peculiarity of the auxiliary verb *must*?

P. That it has no variation of any kind.

G. Is *must* the sign of a mood?

P. It is generally considered one of the signs of the potential mood?

G. Is the verb *ought* an auxiliary?

P. No; it is an independent verb, but it can only be used in the present and the past tense.

G. Give an illustration of the use of the verb *ought*.

P. *I ought to go to-day.* *Ought* is in the present tense. *I ought to have gone yesterday.* *Ought* is in the past tense. *I ought to go to-morrow.* *Ought* is in the present tense, because we mean that we feel at the present moment that we have a duty to perform the next day.

G. Is the verb *to do* an auxiliary verb?

P. Yes; it is used when we wish to express ourselves strongly.

G. Is the verb *to do* a complete verb?

P. Yes; when it stands alone. Thus we can say,

I may or can do, I shall have done, &c. ; but when *do* is used as an auxiliary, it is used only in the present and past tenses, as *I do love, I did love.*

G. Is the verb *will* always defective ?

P. No ; it can be conjugated throughout, when it is used to express a fixed determination ; as, *he has willed or determined to do it.*

G. What are those verbs called which are used only in the third person singular ?

P. Impersonal verbs.

G. Mention some impersonal verbs.

P. To rain, to snow, to hail, &c. We can only say, *it rains, it snows, it hails, &c.*

G. When the nominative is placed after the verb, how is the verb said to be conjugated ?

P. Interrogatively, as *Have I? Move I? or Do I move?*

*Exercise on the Auxiliary Verb To be, and on the Defective and Impersonal Verbs.**

He will be here to-morrow. I might have been there, but my father said that I must be in London. If I may, I will. Ought we not to go home? Must we not be sorry? He willed differently, and He was obeyed. Ought we not to have been punished. They can do it if they will. I shall do it, though he may dislike it. You must have done it yesterday. They

* It is not necessary in parsing this exercise to do more than note the auxiliary verbs as signs of certain moods and tenses.

should have gone at once. Might they not desire a more comfortable home? We shall have been five days on the journey. To be willing. Should he not have spoken yesterday? They may do it. He ought not to be admitted into society. If it be possible, I will be with you to-morrow. Go and see if it rains now. If it snow to-morrow, the roads will be impassable. If he was present yesterday, he certainly must have been very angry. If he is honourable, I respect him. If he be honourable in his dealings, from henceforth I shall respect him.

(It is to be remembered that the Subjunctive Mood differs from the Indicative only when it implies uncertainty as to the future.)

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

G. Adverbs may be divided into many other classes besides those already mentioned.

The classes of Adverbs which are chiefly to be remembered are the following, which must be learnt :

Adverbs of Affirmation—*Certainly, doubtless, indeed, really, verily, surely, truly, undoubtedly, yea, yes, &c.*

Comparison—*Alike, better, best, less, least, more, most, very, too, worse, worst, &c.*

Interrogation—*How, why, wherefore, &c.*

Negation—*Nay, no, not, &c.*

Separation—*Apart, asunder, separately, off, alone, &c.*

Number—*Once, twice, thrice, &c.*

Contingence or Possibility—*Peradventure, perchance, perhaps, possibly, &c.*

Likeness—*To, thus, as, equally, &c.*

The difficulty with regard to Adverbs is, that the same word may be an adverb in one sentence and an adjective in another.* *Better* and *best*, for instance, may either be adverbs or adjectives. If I say, 'This a *better* book than that,' or 'This is the *best* book of all,' *better* and *best* are adjectives, because they refer to or qualify the noun, and show the quality of the books. But if I say, 'I like this book *better* than that,' or 'I like this book the *best*,' then *better* and *best* are adverbs, because they refer to or qualify the verb *like*, and show how I like the books. I will give you another instance.

This is the least agreeable place I have ever seen.
Least is—?

P.—an adverb, because it qualifies the adjective *agreeable*.

G. I admire this drawing the least of all. Least is—?

P.—an adverb, because it qualifies the verb *admire*.

G. This is a worse day than yesterday. Worse is—?

P.—an adjective. It qualifies the noun *day*.

G. They agree worse than ever. Worse is—?

P.—an adverb. It qualifies the verb *agree*.

G. The distinction between adjectives and adverbs will easily be made if you bear in mind that adjectives

* Adverbs and prepositions may also easily be confounded; as, *It is all over* (or past). *Over* is an adverb of time. *I threw it over the hedge*. *Over* is a preposition.

tives refer to or qualify nouns, and adverbs qualify verbs and sometimes adjectives and other adverbs.

A few adverbs are like adjectives in being compared by adding *er* and *est*, as *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*; *often*, *oftener*, *oftenest*; *far*, *farther*, *farthest*, or else by prefixing *more* and *most*, as *more often*, *most often*.

I will give you some more examples of adverbs and adjectives, and you shall tell me what part of speech they qualify. *She writes very correctly. Very and correctly are—*

P.—adverbs.

G. Very qualifies—?

P.—the adverb correctly.

G. Correctly qualifies—?

P.—the verb writes.

G. This is a most lovely view. Most is—?

P.—an adverb.

G. Lovely is—?

P.—an adjective.

G. Most qualifies—?

P.—the adjective lovely.

G. Lovely qualifies—?

P.—the noun view.

G. I have stayed here more often than you have. More is—?

P.—an adverb, qualifying the adverb often.

G. Often—?

P.—is an adverb, qualifying the verb stayed.

G. Look at this very ugly dog. Very is—?

P.—an adverb, qualifying the adjective ugly.

G. Ugly—?

P.—is an adjective, qualifying the noun *dog*.

G. *This is the farthest point. Farthest is—?*

P.—an adjective, qualifying the noun *point*.

G. *I cannot go farther. Farther—*

P.—is an adverb, qualifying the verb *go*.

G. *At farthest, at soonest, and similar expressions are also adverbs or adverbial expressions.*

Summary.

G. Are there many classes of adverbs ?

P. Yes ; besides those of quality, quantity, place, and time, the chief are classes of affirmation, comparison, interrogation, negation, separation, number, contingency or possibility, and likeness.

G. What is the great difficulty with regard to adverbs ?

P. The great difficulty in recognising adverbs is that the same word may be an adverb in one sentence, and an adjective in another ; or it may be an adverb in one sentence, and a preposition in another.

G. Give me an illustration.

P. If I say ‘This is a better book than that,’ *better* is an adjective, because it refers to or qualifies the noun *book* ; but if I say ‘I like this book better than that,’ *better* is an adverb, because it refers to or qualifies the verb *like*.

G. What is the rule for distinguishing adjectives and adverbs ?

P. Adjectives refer to or qualify nouns, whilst adverbs refer to or qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

G. Are adverbs ever compared ?

P. Yes, they may, like adjectives, be compared by the addition of *er* and *est*, as *often*, *oftener*, *oftenest*, or by prefixing *more* and *most*, as *more often*, *most often*.

Exercise on Adverbs, with Adjectives interspersed.

She sings *most beautifully*, and has a *very lovely* voice. He ran so *rapidly* that I *no sooner* came in sight of him than he was gone. I *therefore* gave up the attempt as equally *hopeless* and *foolish*. The waters flowed *copiously* from the *most sparkling* and *exquisitely clear* fountain I ever saw. He will be *here to-morrow*, *at farthest*, and we shall then have *no farther* occasion for anxiety. The lion sprang *suddenly* upon him, but, *most fortunately*, his companion was *sufficiently near* to save him. Can you *not* be *kind enough* to assist a man *more unfortunate* than yourself? He comes *oftener* than I like, and *most frequently* when I am *particularly anxious* to be alone.

GOVERNMENT OF PREPOSITIONS AND DIVISION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

G. There is not much more to be said about Prepositions, except that in English they govern the objective case, by which is meant that the noun or pronoun which follows them must always be in that case. For instance, we do not say *Stand near I*, but—?

P.—*near me*.

G. *Not go with he*, but—?

P.—go with him.

G. When you are in doubt whether a word is or is not a preposition, you will often be able to decide by putting a noun or a pronoun in the objective case after it, and observing whether it makes sense.

Conjunctions and prepositions are frequently perplexing. I will give you several words belonging to these two parts of speech, and you shall judge by this rule what they are to be called. *From*?

P. *From him.* Preposition.

G. *Wherefore*?

P. *Wherefore him* is nonsense. *Wherefore* is a conjunction.

G. *Against*?

P. *Against me.* Preposition.

G. *Because*?

P. *Because me* is nonsense. *Because* is a conjunction.

G. The preposition *of* is, as you have been told, a sign of the possessive case. The preposition *to* is also the sign of a case, called *the Dative*, but this is a case which is more fully recognised in foreign languages than it is in English. In German, for instance, a noun in the dative case has a peculiar termination, but it is not so in English. So also in German a pronoun in the dative case often differs from a pronoun in the objective case; but in English the pronouns are alike. Now tell me what is the case which is marked by the preposition *to*?

P. The dative case.

G. The chief observation to be made about Con-

junctions, in addition to what has been already said, is that some are called *Conjunctive*, and some *Disjunctive*. Conjunctive conjunctions, such as *and*, *also*, *both*, &c., are used to connect words and sentences which are to be considered jointly; and disjunctive conjunctions, such as *either*, *nor*, *but*, *though*, &c., are used to show a diversity or opposition between them. You will understand this better by a few examples.

Charles and Mary have taken the book. And is—?
P.—a conjunctive conjunction.

G. Yes. It joins *Charles and Mary* together, and shows that they acted jointly. The verb which follows is therefore in the plural. But if I say 'Either Charles or Mary has taken the book,' *either* and *or* are—?

P.—disjunctive conjunctions.

G. Yes. They divide *Charles and Mary*, and show that they acted separately. Therefore the verb is in the singular. So also with regard to sentences. When we state a fact or express an opinion, and then make some exception to what we have said, we use disjunctive conjunctions. For instance, *She is a good child, but very dull. But is—?*

P.—a disjunctive conjunction.

G. *He has succeeded, notwithstanding his indolence. Notwithstanding is—?*

P.—a disjunctive conjunction.

G. *This is a valuable horse, though it is not handsome. Though is—?*

P.—a disjunctive conjunction.

G. When two conjunctions come together they are sometimes called *Compound Conjunctions*, and the short conjunctive phrases *in order that*, *for instance*, may also be considered compound conjunctions.

Summary.

G. What do prepositions govern in English?

P. The objective case.

G. In what way may we often decide whether a word is a preposition or a conjunction?

P. By putting a pronoun in the objective case after it, and observing whether it makes sense.

G. Of what case is the preposition *to* the sign?

P. Of the dative case.

G. Is the dative clearly marked in English?

P. No, for there is not any difference between the nouns and pronouns in the dative case, and those which are in the objective.

G. What are the chief distinctions to be remarked with regard to conjunctions?

P. Some are conjunctive, and some disjunctive.

G. Which are the conjunctive conjunctions?

P. Those that are used to connect words and things which are to be considered jointly, as *Charles and Mary have taken the book*.

G. Which are the disjunctive conjunctions?

P. Those which imply diversity or opposition, as *Either Charles or Mary has taken the book*.

G. What are compound conjunctions?

P. Two conjunctions following each other are sometimes called compound conjunctions, and the

short conjunctional phrases *in order that*, for instance, are of the same character.

Exercise on Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

Either he or I must go to the town, *for* there is no meat *in* the house *for* my mother's dinner, *and unless* we procure it *from* the shop to-day, it will not be ready to-morrow. *Alas!* *notwithstanding* his exertions, the ship was dashed *against* the rocks *on* the coast of Ireland, *and between* forty and fifty persons perished. *Throughout* the day crowds were hurrying *to* the spot, *but although* some *amongst* them were compassionate, *others* showed themselves to be *without* feeling. *During* the space of a year, I wrote constantly *concerning* him, *but neither* his father *nor* mother answered my letter. I love you *because* you are my friend, *yet* I am not blind *to* your faults. Everyone *except* his father thinks he is *near* death. *Ah!* how happy is he *in* the society of his wife.

WORDS USED IN VARIOUS RELATIONS.

G. It has been said that the chief perplexity in distinguishing the different parts of speech arises from the use of the same word in various relations, so that in one sentence it may be one part of speech, and in the next sentence another. We will go now through some of the words which are most likely to create confusion in the mind. The first we will take

is *as*. *Charles is as rich as Cræsus*. How rich is Charles?

P. As rich as Cræsus.

G. *As* assists in answering the question *how*, and words which do this are—?

P.—adverbs.

G. *He went, as I told him to go.* *As* cannot in this sentence be an adverb. It does not refer to or qualify the verb *go*, and it does not answer to the question *how*, *when*, or *where*. Put another word in its place which will give the same meaning.*

P. He went, *because* I told him to go

G. *Because* is—?

P.—a conjunction.

G. And therefore *as* is in this sentence a conjunction. *As a poet, he holds a high rank.* In this sentence also *as* is a conjunction. We cannot indeed change it for the conjunction *because*, as we did in the former sentence; but by transposing the two parts of the sentence, we shall see that it serves to connect them together then. *He holds a high rank as a poet.*

The word *but* is sometimes a conjunction. It is a preposition when we can exchange it for *except*, and still retain the sense. For instance, instead of saying ‘No one *but* a bad man would have acted thus,’ we may say—?

P.—‘no one *except* a bad man would have acted thus.’

* Any perplexity with regard to the parts of speech to which a word belongs may, as a rule, be obviated by exchanging the word for another having the same meaning.

G. *For* is also sometimes a preposition, and sometimes a conjunction. If I say 'John is waiting for me,' *for* shows the relation between *John* and *me*, and is—?

P.—a preposition.

G. If I say 'John must not wait, for I am not ready,' *for* merely joins the two parts of the sentence, and may be exchanged for *because*; and therefore it is—?

P.—a conjunction.

G. *I hope he will be rewarded for his conduct. For* is—?

P.—a preposition.

G. *I trust he will be rewarded, for he has behaved nobly. For* is—?

P.—a conjunction.

G. *Either* and *neither* are sometimes distributive adjective pronouns, and sometimes conjunctions. Thus: *Take either of these books. Either* refers to the noun *books*, and therefore is a pronoun. But if we say *Either go or stay*, *either* is a conjunction, for it has no reference to a noun. We will take another example. *Either of the two pictures may be chosen. Either* refers to the noun *pictures*, and therefore is—?

P.—a distributive adjective pronoun.

G. *He neither walked nor rode. Neither* is—?

P.—a conjunction.

G. *However* is sometimes an adverb, and sometimes a conjunction. *However wise a person may be, he will sometimes make mistakes.* In that sentence *however* qualifies the adjective *wise*, and therefore is—?

P.—an adverb.

G. *You might however have acted more fairly. However* in that sentence may be exchanged for

nevertheless. You might **NEVERTHELESS** have acted more fairly. *Nevertheless* is—?

P.—a conjunction.

G. And therefore *however*, which occupies the same place in the sentence, is also—?

P.—a conjunction.

G. *Much*, *more* and *most* are used sometimes as adjectives and sometimes as adverbs. *Much* (or a great deal of) *money* was expended. *Much* qualifies the noun *money*, and is—?

P.—an adjective.

G. *He looks much better to-day.* *Much* qualifies the adjective *better*; it is, therefore—?

P.—an adverb.

G. *More praises* have been given him than he deserves. *More* qualifies—?

P.—the noun *praises*, and is therefore an adjective.

G. *He is more diligent than you.* *More* qualifies the adjective *diligent* and is—?

P.—an adverb.

G. *Most men* are impatient. *Most* qualifies the noun *men*, and is, therefore, an adjective. *He has acted most presumptuously.* *Most* qualifies—?

P.—the adverb *presumptuously*, and it is therefore an adverb.

G. If we say, 'He has given *much*, and therefore he requires *much*,' *much* is a noun, but some other word is understood—as *much time* or *much money*. *No* is sometimes an adjective, sometimes an adverb. I ask 'Are you ill?' and you answer '*No!*' *No* is then—?

P.—an adverb of negation.

G. *I have no paper.* *No*, in that sentence, qualifies the noun *paper*, and is therefore—?

P.—an adjective.

G. *Save* is sometimes a verb and sometimes a preposition. *I think he will save us.* What part of speech is *save*?

P. A verb.

G. *All were present save John*, or *all were present EXCEPT John*. In that sentence *save* is—?

P.—a preposition,

G. *Since* may be either a conjunction or an adverb. *Let us part peaceably since we must part.* In that sentence *since* joins the two portions of the sentence and is therefore—?

P.—a conjunction.

G. *Our friendship commenced long since.* In that sentence *since* has to do with the question ‘*When* did the friendship commence?’ and is therefore—?

P.—an adverb.

G. *That* may be either a relative pronoun, a demonstrative adjective pronoun, or a conjunction. It is always a relative pronoun when it may be changed into *which*, and it is a demonstrative adjective pronoun when it points out any particular person or thing. In other cases it is a conjunction.

This is the book that he took. In this sentence the word *that* is—?

P.—a relative pronoun, because we can say, ‘*The book which he took.*’

G. *He took that book.* *That* is—?

P.—a demonstrative adjective pronoun, because it points out the particular book.

G. *He took the book that he might read it. That* joins the two parts of the sentence, and therefore is—?

P.—a conjunction.

G. *Then* is sometimes an adverb and sometimes a conjunction. *He arrived then, and not before. Then* qualifies the verb *arrives*, and answers to the question *when* ? It is therefore—?

P.—an adverb.

G. *I am inclined then to go with him. Then* may be exchanged for *therefore*, and is—?

P.—a conjunction.

Exercise upon Words used in various Relations.

None *but* Henry and Charles were present, and *neither* of them liked to answer the question. *How-ever* Henry is *as* bold *as* a lion, and *as* Charles always follows his example, they *neither* hesitated nor looked shy, but said at once *that* they knew *that* bad boy, and hoped *that* he would be caught, *since* he thoroughly deserved punishment. *Since* that time no tidings have been received of the delinquent, *save* a short message brought by a ragged urchin, who ran off as if to *save* his life. *Most* persons think it *much* better not to make *more* enquiries, *but* I am not inclined to agree with them. He has behaved *most* infamously, and unless he is *more* careful for the future he will cause *much* sorrow to his master, who,

I heard, not long *since* was extremely unhappy about him. I called yesterday at his aunt's house to ask if she meant to write to him, *but* no one was at home *but* the servant. I have heard since *that* the address *that* he left behind was false. You see *then* there is nothing to be done but to wait till his master's return. *Then* I think we may find and punish him.

EXERCISE 1.

The finest shoe often hurts the foot.

<i>The</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>shoe</i> .
<i>finest</i>	adj., sup. deg., qualifying noun <i>shoe</i> .
<i>shoe</i>	noun com., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>hurts</i> .
<i>often</i>	adverb, qualifying verb <i>hurts</i> .
<i>hurts</i>	verb act., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>foot</i> .
<i>foot</i> .	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>hurts</i> .

EXERCISE 2.

If you break that window, you must pay for the glass.

<i>If</i>	conj., sign of subj. mood.
<i>you</i>	per. pron., 2nd per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>break</i> .
<i>break</i>	verb act., 2nd per. plur., subj. mood, pres. tense.
<i>that</i>	demon. adj. pron., belonging to noun <i>window</i> .
<i>window</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>break</i> .
<i>you</i>	per. pron., 2nd per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>must pay</i> .

<i>must</i>	sign of the potential mood.
<i>pay</i>	(<i>must pay</i>) verb neut., 2nd per. plur., pot. mood, pres. tense.
<i>for</i>	prep.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>glass</i> .
<i>glass.</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>for</i> .

EXERCISE 3.

Our sisters have gone out to a shop, and will not return until it is rather late.

<i>Our</i>	poss. adj. pron., plur., belonging to noun <i>sisters</i> .
<i>sisters</i>	noun com., fem., 3rd per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>have gone</i> .
<i>have gone</i>	verb neut., 3rd per plur., indic. mood, perf. tense.
<i>out</i>	adverb, qualifying verb <i>have gone</i> .
<i>to</i>	prep.
<i>a</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>shop</i> .
<i>shop,</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>to</i> .
<i>and</i>	conj. conjunctive.
<i>will</i>	verb aux., sign of future tense.
<i>not</i>	adverb, qualifying verb <i>will return</i> .
<i>return</i>	(<i>will return</i>) verb neut., 3rd per. plur., indic. mood, future tense.
<i>until</i>	adverb of time.
<i>it</i>	per. pron., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>is</i> .
<i>is</i>	verb neut., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>rather</i>	adverb, qualifying adj. <i>late</i> .
<i>late.</i>	adj., pos. deg.

EXERCISE 4.

That man's son is cutting our hay.

<i>That</i>	demon. adj. pron., belonging to noun <i>man</i> .
<i>man's</i>	noun com., mas., sing., poss. case.

<i>son</i>	noun com., mas., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>is</i> .
<i>is</i>	verb aux., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>cutting</i>	verb active, part. pres.
<i>our</i>	poss. adj. pron., belonging to noun <i>hay</i> .
<i>hay</i> .	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by combined verb <i>is cutting</i> .

EXERCISE 5.

He may go to hear the concert, but he may not take Henry with him.

<i>He</i>	per. pron., mas., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>may go</i> .
<i>may</i>	verb aux., sign of pot. mood.
<i>go</i>	(<i>may go</i>) verb neut., 3rd per. sing., pot. mood, pres. tense.
<i>to</i>	sign of infinitive mood.
<i>hear</i>	(<i>to hear</i>) verb active, infin. pres.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>concert</i> .
<i>concert,</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>hear</i> .
<i>but</i>	conj. disjunc.
<i>he</i>	per. pron., mas., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>may take</i> .
<i>may</i>	aux. verb, sign of pot. mood.
<i>not</i>	adverb, qualifying verb <i>may take</i> .
<i>take</i>	(<i>may take</i>) verb act., 3rd per. sing., pot. mood, pres. tense.
<i>Henry</i>	noun prop., mas., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>take</i> .
<i>with</i>	prep.
<i>him.</i>	per. pron., mas., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>with</i> .

EXERCISE 6.

The cathedral at Milan is built of marble from Carrara; it was commenced in the twelfth century, and is not yet completed.

<i>The</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>cathedral</i> .
<i>cathedral</i>	noun com., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>is built</i> .
<i>at</i>	prep.
<i>Milan</i>	noun prop., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>at</i> .
<i>is</i>	verb pass., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>built</i>	
<i>of</i>	prep.
<i>marble</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>of</i> .
<i>from</i>	prep.
<i>Carrara;</i>	noun prop., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>from</i> .
<i>it</i>	per. pron., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>was commenced</i> .
<i>was</i>	verb pass., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, past tense.
<i>commenced</i>	
<i>in</i>	prep.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>century</i> .
<i>twelfth</i>	adj., ordinal.
<i>century,</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>in</i> .
<i>and</i>	conj. conjunctive.
<i>is</i>	verb aux., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>not</i>	adverb, qualifying verb <i>is completed</i> .
<i>yet</i>	adverb of time qualifying verb <i>completed</i> .
<i>completed.</i>	verb act., past participle.

EXERCISE 7.

It is from the sea that Genoa may be seen to the greatest advantage.

<i>It</i>	per. pron., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>is</i> .
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<i>is</i>	verb neut., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense
<i>from</i>	prep.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>sea</i> .
<i>sea</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>from</i> .
<i>that</i>	conj. disjunc.
<i>Genoa</i>	noun prop., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>may be seen</i> .
<i>may</i>	verb pass., 3rd per. sing., pot. mood, pres. tense.
<i>be</i>	
<i>seen</i>	
<i>to</i>	
<i>the</i>	prep.
<i>greatest</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>advantage</i> .
<i>advantage.</i>	adj., super. degree, qualifying noun <i>advantage</i> .
	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>to</i> .

EXERCISE 8.

You wish to prove that we are wrong, because you think otherwise.

<i>You</i>	per. pron., 2nd per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>wish</i> .
<i>wish</i>	verb neut., 2nd per. plur., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>to</i>	sign of infin. mood.
<i>prove</i>	verb act., infin. pres.
<i>that</i>	conj. disjunc.
<i>we</i>	per. pron., 1st per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>are</i> .
<i>are</i>	verb neut., 1st person plur., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>wrong</i>	adj., pos. deg.
<i>because</i>	conj. disjunc.
<i>you</i>	per. pron., 2nd per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>think</i> .
<i>think</i>	verb neut., 2nd per. plur., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>otherwise.</i>	adverb, qualifying verb <i>think</i> .

EXERCISE 9.

James went down to the river to fish; but he was disappointed, for he only caught one trout.

<i>James</i>	noun prop., mas., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>went</i> .
<i>went</i>	verb neut. (to go) 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, past tense.
<i>down</i>	adverb, qualifying verb <i>went</i> .
<i>to</i>	prep.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>river</i> .
<i>river</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>to</i> .
<i>to</i>	sign of infin. mood.
<i>fish</i>	(<i>to fish</i>) verb neut., infin., pres.
<i>but</i>	conj. disjunc.
<i>he</i>	per. pron., mas., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>was disappointed</i> .
<i>was</i>	verb pass., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, past tense.
<i>disap-</i>	
<i>pointed</i>	
<i>for</i>	conj. disjunc.
<i>he</i>	per. pron., mas., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>caught</i> .
<i>caught</i>	verb act. (<i>to catch</i>), 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, past tense.
<i>only</i>	adverb, qualifying adj. <i>one</i> .
<i>one</i>	adj. numeral.
<i>trout.</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>caught</i> .

EXERCISE 10.

The day is quite chilly, and we need a fire, although it is August.

<i>The</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>day</i> .
<i>day</i>	noun. com., 3rd per sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>is</i> .

<i>is</i>	verb neut., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>quite</i>	adverb, qualifying adjective <i>chilly</i> .
<i>chilly</i>	adj., pos. deg.
<i>and</i>	conj. conjunc.
<i>we</i>	per. pron., mas., 1st per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>need</i> .
<i>need</i>	verb neut. 1st per. plur., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>a</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>fire</i> .
<i>fire</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>need</i> .
<i>although</i>	conj. disjunc.
<i>it</i>	per. pron., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>is</i> .
<i>is</i>	verb neut., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>August.</i>	noun prop., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, after verb <i>is</i> .

EXERCISE 11.

*That little girl told me that her doll was broken by
these rude boys.*

<i>That</i>	demon. adj. pron., belonging to noun <i>girl</i> .
<i>little</i>	adj., pos. deg., qualifying noun <i>girl</i> .
<i>girl</i>	noun. com., fem., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>told</i> .
<i>told</i>	verb act., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, past tense.
<i>me</i>	per. pron., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>told</i> .
<i>that</i>	conj. disjunc.
<i>her</i>	poss. adj. pron., fem., sing., belonging to noun <i>doll</i> .
<i>doll</i>	noun com., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>was broken</i> .
<i>was</i>	verb pass., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, past tense.
<i>broken</i>	
<i>by</i>	prep.
<i>these</i>	demon. adj. pron., plur., belonging to noun <i>boys</i> .
<i>rude</i>	adj., pos. deg., qualifying noun <i>boys</i> .
<i>boys.</i>	noun com., mas., plur., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>by</i> .

EXERCISE 12.

The vineyards of Switzerland are very ugly compared with those of Italy, where the vines are trained in most graceful forms.

<i>The</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>vineyards</i> .
<i>vineyards</i>	noun com., 3rd per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>are</i> .
<i>of</i>	prep.
<i>Switzer- land</i> }	noun prop., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>of</i> .
<i>are</i>	verb neut., 3rd per. plur., indic. mood., pres. tense.
<i>very</i>	adverb, qualifying adj. <i>ugly</i> .
<i>ugly</i>	adj., pos. deg.
<i>compared</i>	verb pass., past participle.
<i>with</i>	prep.
<i>those</i>	dem. adj. pron., plur., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>with</i> .
<i>of</i>	prep.
<i>Italy</i>	noun prop., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>of</i> .
<i>where</i>	adverb of place.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>vines</i> .
<i>vines</i>	noun com., 3rd per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>are trained</i> .
<i>are</i> }	verb pass., 3rd per. plur., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>trained</i> }	prep.
<i>in</i>	adverb, qualifying adj. <i>graceful</i> .
<i>most</i> }	adj., pos. deg. (made superlative by adding of <i>most</i>),
<i>graceful</i> }	belonging to noun <i>forms</i> .
<i>forms</i> .	noun com., plur., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>in</i> .

EXERCISE 13.

I have spent several months this summer in Wales, and, if we can arrange it, we shall make a tour on the continent next year.

<i>I</i>	per. pron., 1st per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>have spent</i> .
<i>have</i>	} verb act., 1st per. sing., indic. mood, perf. tense.
<i>spent</i>	
<i>several</i>	
<i>months</i>	adj. distrib., qualifying noun <i>months</i> . noun com., plur., obj. case, governed by verb <i>have spent</i> .
<i>this</i>	demon. adj. pron., belonging to noun <i>summer</i> .
<i>summer</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>of</i> understood.
<i>in</i>	prep.
<i>Wales</i>	noun prop., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>in</i> .
<i>and</i>	conj. conjunctive.
<i>if</i>	conj. disjunctive.
<i>we</i>	per. pron., 1st per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>can arrange</i> .
<i>can</i>	} verb aux., sign of pot. mood. (<i>can arrange</i>) verb act., 1st per. plur., pot. mood, pres. tense.
<i>arrange</i>	
<i>it</i>	per. pron., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>arrange</i> .
<i>we</i>	per. pron., 1st per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>shall make</i> .
<i>shall</i>	} verb aux., sign of future tense. (<i>shall make</i>) verb act., 1st per. plur., indic. mood, future tense.
<i>make</i>	
<i>a</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>tour</i> .
<i>tour</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>shall make</i> .

<i>on</i>	prep.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>continent</i> .
<i>continent</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>on</i> .
<i>next</i>	adj. (next or nearest). super. deg. of near, qualifying noun <i>year</i> .
<i>year</i> .	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>on</i> .

EXERCISE 14.

*I stood on the bridge at midnight,
 As the clocks were striking the hour,
 And the moon rose o'er the city,
 Behind the dark church-tower.*

<i>I</i>	per. pron., 1st per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>stood</i> .
<i>stood</i>	verb neut., 1st per. sing., indic. mood, past tense.
<i>on</i>	prep.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>bridge</i> .
<i>bridge</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>on</i> .
<i>at</i>	prep.
<i>midnight,</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>at</i> .
<i>As</i>	adverb.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj.
<i>clocks</i>	noun com., 3rd per. plur.
<i>were</i>	verb aux., 3rd per. plur., indic. mood, past tense.
<i>striking</i>	verb act., part. pres.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>hour</i> .
<i>hour,</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by combined verbs <i>were striking</i> .
<i>And</i>	conj. conjunctive.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>moon</i> .
<i>moon</i>	noun com., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>rose</i> .
<i>rose</i>	verb neut., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, past tense.
<i>o'er</i>	(over) prep.

<i>winds</i>	verb neut., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>slowly</i>	adverb, qualifying verb <i>winds</i> .
<i>o'er</i>	(<i>over</i>) prep.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>lea</i> .
<i>lea,</i>	noun com., sing., obj., governed by prep. <i>over</i> .
<i>The</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>ploughman</i> .
<i>ploughman</i>	noun com., mas., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>plods</i> .
<i>homeward</i>	adverb, qualifying verb <i>plods</i> .
<i>plods</i>	verb neut., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>his</i>	poss. adj. pron., mas., sing., belonging to noun <i>way</i> .
<i>weary</i>	adj., pos. deg., qualifying noun <i>way</i> .
<i>way,</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>plods</i> .
<i>And</i>	conj. conjunctive.
<i>leaves</i>	verb act., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>world</i> .
<i>world</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>leaves</i> .
<i>to</i>	prep.
<i>darkness</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>to</i> .
<i>and</i>	conj. conjunctive.
<i>to</i>	prep.
<i>me.</i>	per. pron., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>to</i> .

EXERCISE 17.

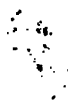
*They still show the spot in the New Forest where William II. was shot; it is marked by a stone encased in iron, and called Rufus's stone.**

<i>They</i>	per. pron., 3rd per. plur., nom. case, governing verb <i>show</i> .
<i>still</i>	adverb of time.

* According to strict grammar we say Rufus's stone, for the apostrophe is only used after the plural; but this is very much a question of sound. We should never say Agnes's doll, though it would be grammatical.

<i>show</i>	verb act., 3rd pers. plur., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>spot</i> .
<i>spot</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>show</i> .
<i>in</i>	prep.
<i>the</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun prop. <i>New Forest</i> .
<i>New Forest</i>	noun prop. sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>in</i> .
<i>where</i>	adverb of place.
<i>William II.</i>	noun prop., mas., 3rd per. sing, nom. case, governing verb <i>was shot</i> .
<i>was shot.</i>	verb pass., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, past tense.
<i>It</i>	per. pron., 3rd per. sing., nom. case, governing verb <i>is marked</i> .
<i>is marked</i>	verb pass., 3rd per. sing. indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>by</i>	prep.
<i>a</i>	dist. adj., belonging to noun <i>stone</i> .
<i>stone</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>by</i> .
<i>encased</i>	verb neut., past part.
<i>in</i>	prep.
<i>iron,</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by prep. <i>in</i> .
<i>and</i>	conj. conjunctive.
<i>is called</i>	verb pass., 3rd per. sing., indic. mood, pres. tense.
<i>Rufus's</i>	noun prop., mas., sing., poss. case.
<i>stone.</i>	noun com., sing., obj. case, governed by verb <i>is called</i> .

9





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